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Educational News and Editorial Comment

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WITH this issue the *School Review* enters its fiftieth year of publication. The occasion will not be celebrated by recounting the history of this journal, since a complete account was given by Professor Henry in the September issue, where he made reference to the celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the University of Chicago and the fact that the life-spans to date of the University and of the *School Review* have been of almost identical length. However, exception may hardly be taken to pointing out that the *School Review* has survived all but a very few of the educational periodicals established before it and that throughout the half-century it has been faithful to its subtitle, "A Journal of Secondary Education." Its life-span coincides with the period of the most astounding development of public secondary education in world-history, a development that has included rapid increase in numbers and proportions of youth in attendance, horizontal expansion of the school by multiplication of the offering and activities, vertical extension through advent of junior high school and junior college, and a host of other modifications hardly less significant. Thus its life-span has put the *Review* in a position to witness and to record all this remarkable development. The current vitality of the *School Review* should afford assurance of continued dynamic relationship to future progress in its field of service.

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HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

THE innovations described in this recurrent feature of the *School Review* are reported from six secondary-school situations in as many states in the East, the South, the Midwest, and the Far West. They concern voice-recording for improvement of speech, assistance by parents in preparing a unit in the social studies, guidance handbooks, and an anthology of artistic expression.

Voice-recordings for use in speech improvement Instances of voice-recording in secondary schools for the purpose of improving speech are being reported in educational periodicals and elsewhere. The June issue of the *English Journal* carries a brief report of use of this procedure in Grades VII and IX in the O'Keefe Junior High School of Atlanta, Georgia. The report was made by William V. Badger and Nathan A. Miller. In the class in English in Grade VII the plan included (1) making a recording before taking up the teaching of the principles of oral composition, (2) making a study of the difficulties and errors of the first recording, (3) studying the bases of these revealed difficulties and practicing the correct habits and skills, (4) making a second recording of the same material, and (5) comparing and evaluating. In Grade IX voice-recordings were used in social-studies classes, which were divided into committees. For a beginning the chairman of a committee selecting a study of parks in Atlanta suggested a forum-type recording after the group had investigated for a week the basic materials in the classroom and collateral material found in the library. The authors state that the pupils soon felt adequately prepared to make extemporaneous comments about their chosen topic but "when their record was played, they were wholeheartedly in favor of more careful preparation for the future." The improvements aimed at in this instance included both expression and thought.

In their discussion of "Outcomes" the authors assert that the children have been "eager, original, and earnest" in their contributions. "The recordings have motivated progress in certain activities which are basically interesting and fundamental but often devoid of child interest because of debilitating classroom procedures."

The other instance of resort to recording to be mentioned here

falls in the extra-curriculum. Reference to it is based on a brief description published in the May-June *Baltimore Bulletin of Education* and prepared by Janet Bassett Johnson, a teacher in the Patterson Park High School. The author states that the "Open Forum Club" of this high school has constantly sought devices for raising the levels of speech. Early in the school year, the club, membership of which included 148 boys and girls, elected a committee on awards of five pupils. A duty of this committee was to select the best speakers of the club to make microphonic records. Among the speeches recorded were many of the famous orations of Patrick Henry, George Washington, Daniel Webster, Andrew Jackson, Abraham Lincoln, Woodrow Wilson, and Franklin D. Roosevelt. In addition, records were made of pupils' original poems, psalms, and compositions. After the records are made, they are played before the entire club, or they become a part of the lessons in the social studies, where they may motivate a unit, add variety, or supply definite information. The author observes that pupils are thrilled to have their voices recorded and that "once they feel the need for improving their enunciation, pronunciation, and interpretation, they definitely strive to acquire these qualities. Likewise, they try to acquire greater confidence, self-control, poise, and personality."

In passing it may be mentioned that the Committee on Scientific Aids to Learning (of the National Research Council) not long ago published its report on *School Recording Technique*, which will be found helpful to persons undertaking to inform themselves on the mechanical techniques of recording. The textual matter is divided into chapters on "The Functions of the Equipment," "First Tests of the New Recorder," "Looking toward a Recording Program," and "Some Notes on the Technique of Recording." Copies of this publication may be obtained for the asking, from the Committee, the office of which is located at 41 East Forty-second Street, New York City.

Mothers help prepare a unit in the social studies

N. C. Davenport, teacher of history in the Franklin High School, is credited, in the *Seattle Educational Bulletin*, with a project in curriculum development in which the mothers of the pupils joined their sons and daughters in a regular class exercise. The

purpose of this exercise was to prepare a unit of work on the problem "How can we build a better America out of the diverse cultural elements which make up our people?" In co-operation with the school lunchroom, the pupils of Mr. Davenport's class entertained their mothers at luncheon. The mothers then went with their hosts to the classroom, where the instructor administered a test pertaining to racial and religious attitudes, the mothers taking the test with the pupils. After the test results had been assembled, each member of the group selected two statements to present and defend at the discussion period on the following day. While the majority of the mothers were not actually present at the second meeting, some of them were there, and the discussion was lively and stimulating. So well satisfied were teacher and pupils with this initial experiment that plans are being projected for an extension of the co-operative enterprise to include twenty or more classes representing several departments of the high school. It may not be without significance that for this larger project an evening meeting is contemplated, when fathers as well as mothers may be expected to participate.

Helps in guidance work prepared by high schools From the Wheat Ridge (Colorado) High School comes a copy of its *Guidance Manual*, subtitled "A Practical Handbook for Teachers, Counselors, and Administrators." Content for the *Manual* was compiled by Paul C. Stevens, superintendent of schools, and J. N. Farquhar, director of activities, in accordance with policies established by the Guidance Committee for the school system. This content is presented in five "parts" concerned with "The Philosophy and Scope of Guidance," "Organization of the Guidance Program," "Tools and Techniques of Guidance," "Evaluation and Improvement of Program," and "Supplementary Teaching Units for General Education."

Intended for the use of pupils rather than the school staff is *Educational Guidance* distributed in the Ames (Iowa) Senior High School, of which Verne M. Young is principal. A "Principal's Message" on one of the first pages states that the purpose of the publication is to give pupils and parents "a panoramic view of the courses offered" in the school. Early sections given over to motivating questions

and a greeting to parents are followed by the school's program of studies and sections on each of the various subject groups. Concluding sections are headed "You Must Choose!" "Success Can Be Yours!" and "After High School, What?"

An attractive anthology of aesthetic expression *Moments of Enchantment* is the name given an inspiring compilation of artistic expression by pupils in New York City's junior high schools. The examples reproduced range through water-color and oil paintings; charcoal, crayon, and pen-and-ink drawings; photography; pottery; sculpture; puppetry; batik; tapestry; dress-making; music; and literary composition in biography, poetry, drama, and the like. A majority of the anthology committee were principals of junior high schools. George H. Hickey, principal of the Macombs Junior High School, was chairman of the committee, and Angelo Patri, principal of the Paul Hoffman Junior High School, was editor.

IMPROVING RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS IN WISCONSIN

EVERYONE conversant with the rural high school problem recognizes it as one of the most unyielding in American secondary education. It is, at the same time, one of the most important because small high schools far outnumber the large ones and because the proportion of rural youth attending high schools lags far behind that in urban territory. Many of the factors of this obstinacy to improvement in the smaller rural high school are readily identifiable, for example, small enrolment itself, limited financial resources and facilities, rapid turnover of teachers and administrators, and the like. One of the most serious obstacles to meeting the needs of the majority of rural and village youth in these schools is the prevalent preoccupation with college preparation for the small minority in these areas who continue their education at the college level.

From time to time and in one state or another, concerted efforts have been made to improve the small-school situation. One of the most promising in recent years is the program in Wisconsin, which began in 1935. John Callahan, state superintendent of public instruction, appointed a committee on small high schools, the chair-

man of which has been C. E. Ragsdale, associate professor of education at the University of Wisconsin. Other members of the original committee were G. P. Deyoe, formerly of the State Teachers College at Platteville and now assistant professor of education at Michigan State College of Agriculture and Applied Science; John H. Kolb, professor and chairman of the Department of Rural Sociology at the University of Wisconsin; Glen H. Nelson, director of student personnel, State Teachers College at Whitewater; E. T. Smith, president of the State Teachers College at Stevens Point; and E. L. Walters, director of secondary-school training, State Teachers College at La Crosse. The original membership was subsequently extended to more than fifty persons providing "fairly complete coverage of all problems which may arise in assisting a rural village community to develop a sound educational program."

The first two years of the committee's activities included an extensive investigation of small high schools of the state. With information of this inquiry at hand, certain schools were selected for closer study. Visits were made by three members of the committee to twenty-six school situations, with a view to identifying a smaller group of co-operating schools. The following criteria were used in selecting these co-operating schools: (1) Each high school "must be definitely rural as shown by the general character of the community and by having 50 per cent or more of its pupils living on farms." (2) Each high school must be near the middle of its size-group in pupil-teacher ratio and annual per pupil cost of instruction. (3) "School buildings must be reasonably adequate." (4) Communities not typically rural, for example, college towns, resort centers, etc., should be excluded. (5) "Each community chosen must lie in an agricultural area different in character from each of the others." (6) Each school chosen must be small, and all sizes of small schools must be represented, excepting that schools with fewer than four teachers were not included. (7) The seven communities must together give "reasonably adequate geographic coverage" of the state.

Invitations to become co-operating communities were extended by personal visit. Responses to the invitations showed enthusiasm, and every community invited accepted the invitation. "None is a second choice."

The co-operative agreements of the committee with the seven communities have been in effect since September, 1940, and the work with the schools has extended through only one school year and part of the second. The first year was used to collect preliminary information about each community, to get committee members into the schools to establish mutual acquaintance, and to "work at a few selected problems." To carry on the work, thirteen committees (of the larger committee) have been organized. In addition to an executive committee, these include seven "special committees" (one for each of the co-operating schools) and committees on teacher training; correspondence study; health, recreation, and physical education; English; and report cards. The responsibilities of these committees suggest the wide scope of school improvement contemplated.

Illustrative improvements already effected in one or more individual schools are introducing agriculture in the curriculum, improving the offering in home economics, enriching instruction in the social studies, making a follow-up study of graduates, adapting the commercial curriculum to the needs of local business, helping to choose better teachers, making a special study of report cards, studying the building situation, planning guidance programs, and improving study habits of pupils.

Limitations of space here permit comment on two only of the several important special concerns of the committee, namely, teacher training and correspondence study. Conferences of various groups have been held with the aim of securing revisions of curriculums in teacher-training institutions of the state in the direction of better preparation for rural secondary school teaching. Some efforts are being made at in-service training through use of extension courses. Because college-entrance requirements are so often an obstacle to curriculum reform, the committee has explored the possibilities of having the college-entrance subjects, which are normally taken by small proportions of pupils, given through the medium of correspondence arrangements. Under such arrangements the energies of the local teaching staffs could be restricted to instruction significant for the majority, instead of a small minority, of youth in rural territory.

WEEKDAY RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION

THE Foreword of a bulletin just published by the United States Office of Education, under the title *Weekday Classes in Religious Education*, opens with the following paragraph.

No extended inquiry is required to discover in this country a widespread and serious concern that education for children and young persons shall include attention to the development of ethical attitudes and practices. Examination of the writings of parents, school officials, public officials, and character-building agencies indicates that all agree on this need, which they see as vital to the implementing of democratic ideas and the perpetuation of our national ideals. How to accomplish this purpose is the puzzling question. Is it a matter of character or moral education inside the limits established by our traditionally accepted theory of the separation of church and state? Or is it essentially a matter of religious instruction? If so, whose responsibility is it?

The Foreword is by Assistant United States Commissioner of Education Bess Goodykoontz, and the bulletin was prepared by Mary Dabney Davis, senior specialist in the Office of Education, with the co-operation of the International Council of Religious Education. The Foreword goes on to put a number of illustrative questions concerning practices and policies in the field and to point out that all such questions fall into two groups: "(1) What *are* the present practices in releasing children for weekday religious education during school hours?" and "(2) What *should* schools, churches, and communities do to provide religious education?" Answers to the first group are provided in this bulletin.

Status and practices are described as they relate to elementary schools and high schools. A few facts concerning developments at the upper level may be cited. It may surprise some readers to learn that the proportionate increase of the weekday programs during the period 1935-40 was more rapid for high schools than for elementary schools. A check-up of one table in the bulletin finds that the plan was in operation during 1939 and 1940 in either "elementary and high school" or in "high school only" in school systems in thirty-four states. However, by 1940 special legislative authorization had been provided in only eight states: Iowa, Kentucky, Maine, Minnesota, New York, Oregon, South Dakota, and West Virginia. Four of these states (Kentucky, Maine, New York, and West Virginia) joined the list as late as 1939-40. In a few states attorney-generals

have ruled in favor of release of public-school pupils for weekday classes, and in a few more states these officers have ruled adversely. All four of the traditional high-school years (Grades IX-XII) are represented in the attendance. In almost a third (30.3 per cent) of the systems, the classes are held in school buildings and in two-thirds (67.0 per cent) in "church centers." Of special interest to persons concerned with high schools is the section on the granting of credit toward graduation for weekday religious instruction. Of the 236 systems supplying usable answers, 96 reported granting credit and 140 not granting credit on completion of the work.

Copies of this pamphlet (United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 3, 1941) may be purchased for ten cents of the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C.

CO-OPERATIVE FORMULATION OF REQUIREMENTS FOR THE PRINCIPALSHIP

MINNESOTA'S State Board of Education in June adopted new requirements for the certification of secondary-school principals. Professor Charles W. Boardman, of the University of Minnesota, who sent to the *School Review* the copy of the new requirements, reports in a letter that the new standards were based on an investigation of the education and the duties and responsibilities of principals of high schools in various size-groups in the state. The investigation was supplemented by a study of standards for certification in all states of the country. The investigation was fostered by the Minnesota Secondary School Principals' Association, of which Clarence E. Blume, formerly principal of the Wendell Phillips Junior High School of Minneapolis, now acting assistant superintendent of schools in charge of secondary education in Minneapolis, was president. Progress reports were made by a committee at various meetings of the association, and the final formulation was submitted to a referendum of members. The formulation of requirements is thus the product of co-operation of the state office of education and of the state's organization of secondary-school principals. The steps taken by the Principals' Association and this co-operation of the association and the state department form an excellent instance of democratic procedure in this area of professional certification.

The requirements set up are stipulated in terms of a "teaching certificate valid in any secondary school" and "additional professional training and professional experience" for three classes of secondary schools: (1) "any secondary school"; (2) secondary schools "with not more than twenty secondary-school teachers, including the superintendent and the principal"; and (3) secondary schools "with not more than ten secondary-school teachers, including the superintendent and the principal."

The requirements (effective July 1, 1945) of professional training for the "standard certificate" valid in "any secondary school" include "a minimum of one year . . . of college training beyond the Bachelor's degree." The forty-five quarter hours (equivalent of thirty semester hours) taken during the year should consist of twelve hours in administration, supervision, and curriculum of secondary schools (administration of secondary schools, six hours; supervision of secondary schools, three hours; curriculum of secondary schools, three hours); nine quarter hours selected from not less than three of the subjects, guidance in secondary schools, psychology of learning, elementary-school curriculum, and tests and measurements; and remaining credits in the fields already named "or in other courses in education or in subjects taught in secondary schools." One may note in passing that, although this program of training can, in some higher institutions, meet the requirements for the Master's degree, the certificate does not call for this degree.

Requirements of professional training for the standard certificate prior to July 1, 1945, are "eighteen semester hours of education of which at least nine semester hours must be in secondary education and including at least the following number of credits beyond the Bachelor's degree": (1) eight quarter hours after July 1, 1941; (2) sixteen quarter hours after July 1, 1942; (3) twenty-four quarter hours after July 1, 1943. The "successful public-school experience" for this standard certificate is "three years in a public accredited secondary school, of which at least one year shall have been in a position requiring administrative or supervisory responsibility."

As is to be expected, requirements for principals in the two classes of smaller schools are not so extensive as those for the standard certificate. For schools with not more than twenty teachers, the re-

quirement in professional training is eight quarter hours beyond the Bachelor's degree, including a course in each of the following: administration of secondary schools, supervision of secondary schools, and curriculum of secondary schools. This certificate requires also "successful public-school experience of at least two years in an accredited secondary school." The principal's certificate in schools with not more than ten teachers calls for eighteen semester hours of education, of which at least nine must be in secondary education, and one year of experience in an accredited secondary school.

USEFULNESS IN PAPER COVERS

THE number of meritorious publications in paper covers seems to be greater than usual. From among these monographs and bulletins which are at hand, the following items have been selected for special comment.

Aid to an occupational survey of the community The Occupational Information and Guidance Service of the United States Office of Education, we are told by J. C. Wright, assistant commissioner for vocational education, in the Foreword to an eighteen-page mimeographed pamphlet, has completed the manuscript of a comprehensive bulletin on community occupational surveys. The bulletin is now in the printer's hands but will not immediately be available for distribution. In the meantime the Office of Education has issued "An Outline of Steps in a Community Occupational Survey" for use of authorities in need of such help. This pamphlet, like the larger bulletin, was prepared by Marguerite W. Zapoleon, specialist in the Occupational Information and Guidance Service, under the supervision of Harry A. Jager, chief of this Service. Its contents are of two kinds, namely, the "steps" themselves, succinctly stated, and a discriminatingly annotated "Selected Bibliography on Techniques for Community Occupational Surveys." Publication of the pamphlet and the comprehensive bulletin is well timed. We shall be in need of frequent—in fact, continuous—occupational surveys during this period and the coming years of serious population displacement.

Procedures for use with pupils who are superior Almost from the onset of the startling popularization of education in the past half-century, which has brought in something approaching the full range of abilities in the population of high-school age, schools have been warned of the dangers of the neglect of pupils of superior abilities that the influx might entail. Almost from this onset, proposals have been made, and practices have been introduced, to offset the dangers. A late Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, *High-School Methods with Superior Students*, capitalizes proposals and practices by reporting opinion and practice in the secondary schools and by generalizing from the best of the literature in the field. Following a one-page "Introduction," content of this bulletin deals with "Characteristics of Superior Students," "Points of View concerning the Education of Superior Students," "Current School Provisions: Organization and Administration," "Current School Provisions: Curriculum and Instruction," and "Concluding Statement." Copies may be purchased of the National Education Association in Washington for twenty-five cents.

Publications on motion pictures for the schools The use of moving pictures in education is an area in which understandings and procedures have lagged behind mechanical developments. Fortunately, however, committees and commissions have for some years been at work on the problems involved and in some instances have received funds with which to conduct experiments and inquiries of other types. One such investigative inquiry is the Motion Picture Project of the American Council on Education. In recent months several publications have emerged from this project, each of which would be deserving, if space permitted, of extensive description. The best that can be done is to indicate for each its general nature and to encourage interested persons (which should include practically all persons who have to do with teaching and supervision in secondary schools) to make first-hand acquaintance with the monographs.

One of these is called *Motion Pictures in a Modern Curriculum*. Its subtitle indicates that it is "A Report on the Use of Films in the

Santa Barbara Schools." Authorship is credited to Reginald Bell (consultant in the study), Leo F. Cain, Lillian A. Lamoreaux, "and others." The three persons named are, respectively, a member of the staff of the School of Education of Stanford University, "project evaluator" of the study, and curriculum director of the Santa Barbara schools. Chapter titles are "The Community and Its Schools," "Films and Little Children," "Films and the World About," "Films and Good Neighbors," "Films and Safe Conduct," "Getting the Most Out of Films," "Films and Social Skills," "Films for Adolescents," and "The Motion Picture in Review." The document, as is to be inferred from some of these titles, is concerned with both elementary- and secondary-school levels. Its price is one dollar.

A School Uses Motion Pictures is a report of experience in the Tower Hill School, a coeducational private school in Wilmington, Delaware, extending through elementary-school and secondary-school years. Its chapters are captioned "The Story in Pictures" (which are all halftone engravings accompanied by the tersest of legends), "Tower Hill and Motion Pictures," "Films for Young Children," "Films in the Social Studies," "Films in Science," "Communication and Expression," "Films in the Auditorium," and "Remarks and Interpretations." The price of this book is one dollar.

Films on War and American Policy represents an effort to help in the understanding of the present war situation and "to prepare for its exigencies in accordance with democratic ideals and democratic procedures." It is by Blake Cochran and consists, in minor part, of a textual treatment of historical developments and issues and, in major part, of a list of films bearing on them, with description and appraisals, the latter having been made by "preview panels." The price of this pamphlet is fifty cents.

Projecting Motion Pictures in the Classroom, by Francis W. Noel, is concerned with vital mechanical matters, such as plans for the projection room, problems of illumination and projection, and the selection and operation of projectors. This booklet sells for fifty cents.

Students Make Motion Pictures, by Floyd E. Brooker and Eugene H. Herrington, reports the experiences in film production by pupils in the Denver schools. The production was centered on studies of the community. Certainly no less can come from a widespread read-

ing of the report than stimulation of frequent further experimentation in other systems and schools. The price is one dollar.

From the National Council of Teachers of English has come another monograph, *Producing School Movies*, dealing with essentially the same problem as does *Students Make Motion Pictures* of the Motion Picture Project. This monograph is referred to as "A Manual for Teachers and Students Interested in Producing Amateur Films" and as a project was sponsored by the Committee on Standards for Motion Pictures and Newspapers of the National Council. The report was prepared by Eleanor D. Child, supervisor of the audiovisual department of the Greenwich (Connecticut) public schools, and Hardy R. Finch, head of the English department in the Greenwich High School. The treatment may be regarded as comprehensive, since it covers problems of organization for production, choice of the idea, the scenario, purchase and use of equipment, filming the picture, advanced techniques, and final preparation and showing. The charge for *Producing School Movies* is a dollar and a half.

State of Missouri works on the school curriculum One of the most ambitious programs of curriculum improvement under state auspices in recent years is that in Missouri.

The work has been carried forward under a small executive staff with the state superintendent, Lloyd W. King, as chairman and a General Planning Committee representing diverse public-school interests. The work of preparing the reports has been that of specialists in the different fields. Publications growing out of the project are now in print under the general caption "Missouri at Work on the Public School Curriculum." The "Secondary School Series" of the full list includes fifteen volumes: *A Statement of Philosophy, Purposes, and Design; General English; School Publications and Speech; Social Studies; Mathematics; Natural Sciences; Home Economics; Industrial Arts Handbook; Business; General Agriculture; Music; Art and Allied Arts; Literature and Dramatics; Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; and Missouri Secondary School Library Handbook.*

LEONARD V. KOOS

WHO'S WHO FOR JANUARY

*Writer of the news notes
and authors of articles
in the current number*

The news notes in this issue have been prepared by LEONARD V. KOOS, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago. LEO F. SMITH, co-ordinator of the Study on Co-operative Work Programs at Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute, Rochester, New York, points out the need of youth for work experience; discusses the efforts made through the Civilian Conservation Corps, the National Youth Administration, and various school programs to provide such experience; and describes how the institution with which he is connected is contributing through its co-operative work program to the fulfillment of youth's need for experience with actual wage-earning. RAYMOND B. STEVENS, professor of sociology at Elmira College, Elmira, New York, reports the post-high-school experiences of 164 high-school graduates in New York State and concludes that whether the graduates attend college, what types of other training they obtain, and what kinds of work they secure are influenced more by the financial status of the family and the opportunities offered by the community than by the ability of the individual or the guidance offered by the school. ASAHUEL D. WOODRUFF, director of the L.D.S. Institute of Religion at Ogden, Utah, describes the development of a technique for measuring personal values, interprets extensive data derived from administering the test to more than three hundred subjects, and concludes that studies of personal values may contribute significantly toward promoting the adjustment of pupils. HAROLD H. PUNKE, professor of education at Georgia State Womans College, Valdosta, Georgia, after reporting data obtained from pupils in high schools in nine states with respect to ages of the pupils, the percentage born outside the state of residence, the ages of the living parents, and the percentage of pupils whose parents have died, discusses the educational implications of the findings. HOMER L. CALKIN, teacher of modern history at Lyons Township High School, La Grange, Illinois, gives concrete suggestions of items of local history that may be used to stimulate pupils' interest in United States his-

tory and to make clear the interrelations of local happenings and the larger national and international movements. The selected references on curriculum, methods of teaching and study and supervision, and measurement, which have been compiled and annotated by LEONARD V. KOOS, begin the tenth annual cycle of lists to be published in this journal covering the whole field of secondary education.

The writers of reviews in the current number PAUL R. PIERCE, principal of Wells High School, Chicago, Illinois. E. C. BOLMEIER, director of secondary education in the public schools of Jackson, Mississippi. HAROLD A. ANDERSON, instructor in education at the University of Chicago. JOSEPHINE K. DILLON, school librarian at Mount Auburn School, Cleveland, Ohio. O. D. FRANK, teacher in the Laboratory Schools at the University of Chicago.

IMPLICATIONS OF CO-OPERATIVE WORK FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

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A COMMITTEE of outstanding educators, working under the sponsorship of the American Youth Commission, has outlined four principal areas—reading, work experience, social studies, and personal problems—as those which should be given intensive thought in the reorganization of secondary curriculums if the schools are to prepare adolescents to take their places in a rapidly changing social, economic, and occupational world. The committee has the following to say with regard to the necessity of providing work experience as a definite part of the school curriculum:

Equal in importance with reading, but very different in character, is a second means of education that has been neglected because it does not have the sanction of traditional school practice. Young people need to learn to work. Labor is the lot of man, and it has not been recognized as it should have been in arranging institutional education. . . .

There is no factor of general education which is more important to consider than work.¹

It is the purpose of this article to point out several methods by which work experiences are provided, to mention some of the difficulties connected with these methods, and to describe how one institution is providing a dynamic type of education which includes provision for both general education and work experience.

METHODS OF PROVIDING WORK EXPERIENCES

One predominant character of the depression and the post-depression years was the increasing difficulty which young people encountered in attempting to enter the world of work. When the pres-

¹ *What the High Schools Ought To Teach*, pp. 15, 19. The Report of a Special Committee on the Secondary School Curriculum. Prepared for the American Youth Commission and Other Co-operating Organizations. Washington: American Council on Education, 1940.

ent war crisis passes, the technological advances made under the pressure of war demands will undoubtedly tend to raise still higher the age at which youth will be allowed to enter into business and industrial fields. If the opportunities to obtain work experiences are to become fewer and fewer, it appears that a survey of the ways in which these experiences might be provided through the schools or other public agencies would be of interest.

At present there are five outstanding movements offering work experience and orientation to young people of high-school and post-high-school age. The first two of these, the National Youth Administration and the Civilian Conservation Corps, are federally financed and controlled. The other three—the summer work camps, the diversified occupations programs, and the co-operative work programs—have been financed and controlled by the schools and by private agencies.

As an aid in lessening the inequalities in educational opportunities, the N.Y.A. is to be commended. However, both in the work camps and on the work projects, the training received has been viewed as being incidental to employment. As a result the N.Y.A. experiences have not been of outstanding value in providing individuals with a balanced, interrelated program of work and education. In the C.C.C. camps young men have learned the satisfaction which comes from a day's work well done. Working for eight hours a day in the open, they have prospered physically. Except for a fortunate few, however, the occupational experiences available to the average enrollee have been small in number, and the months spent in camp far from home lost for many of the men the opportunity to enter industry when jobs became available. Likewise, the C.C.C. educational program, which had been viewed with enthusiasm in the first year or two of its life, has felt the stifling hand of bureaucracy. Now, aside from experience obtained during the day on the conservation projects, the C.C.C. does little to provide a clear-cut and inspiring program for secondary education.

Another means of providing a limited amount of work experience for young people is the summer work camp.¹ The young people who

¹ Kenneth Holland and George L. Bickel, *Work Camps for High School Youth*. Prepared for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1941.

come to these camps pay their own way, and during the eight weeks in camp they spend from five to seven hours a day on projects of community value, such as repairing old barns and building fences, trails, and roads. The participants, coming from widely varying social and economic backgrounds, not only experience the satisfaction which comes from the knowledge of work well done but are also provided with an invaluable laboratory in social science. Worth while as these experiences are, they do not provide any great degree of occupational proficiency, and they take place in a somewhat artificial setting far afield from the requirements of the workaday world.

The diversified occupations programs, which in recent years have come into prominence in this country, are now operating in more than five hundred communities. In this method of providing work experiences, high-school pupils are allowed to work for one-half of each school day in small businesses and industries upon jobs of interest to them. During the other half of the day related subjects are studied in school. These programs have much to offer in smaller communities and will probably become of even greater importance in succeeding years. There has been some tendency, unfortunately, for some individuals and businesses to obtain the help of high-school pupils and exploit their energy without offering much in the way of training or salary. Obviously such exploitation must be avoided if these programs are to serve their greatest purpose.

Another type of work experience which appears to the writer to have great possibilities is the co-operative work program, which has been utilized at the college level since 1906¹ and the high-school level since 1908.² By "co-operative education" or "co-operative work program" is meant that type of curriculum which is based on alternation of regularly scheduled instructional periods in school with periods of employment in business or industry, definite provisions being made for treating the work experiences as an integral part of the total education of the student. Under this plan students generally work in pairs and alternate with each other in order that continuity may be assured on the process or job in the factory as well as

¹ Clyde W. Park, *The Co-operative System of Education*, p. 9. United States Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 37, 1916.

² Matthew R. McCann, *The Fitchburg Plan of Co-operative Industrial Education*, p. 8. United States Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 50, 1913.

in school work. The length of the period of alternation varies from community to community. In localities utilizing programs of diversified occupations (which are an aspect of co-operative education), this period is a half-day, but it ranges up to the three-month period which is most popular at the college level.

Co-operative programs have many advantages, the most important of which are the following: (1) The students have opportunities to observe the interrelation between the theory studied in school and the practical work carried on in industry, and this observation tends to vitalize and to make more meaningful the work carried on in the classroom. (2) Young people are afforded an orientation to industry and certain elementary skills in the occupational world. (3) The intimate contacts with adult workers provide students with a knowledge of labor problems and the opportunity to observe the psychology of the workingman. (4) Students learn the necessity for getting along with others and for obeying instructions. (5) The students, through their intimate contacts with materials and methods, challenge and motivate the faculty to keep abreast of current practices. (6) The co-operative system necessitates a close relation between the schools and industries, and this closeness provides a basis for mutual understanding of the other's needs and problems.

Perhaps because of the unwillingness of school administrators to provide a curriculum flexible enough to take care of scheduling difficulties and because of their tendency to question the respectability and educational possibilities of work experiences, co-operative education has never attained, at the secondary-school level, the status which it deserves.

A FUNCTIONING PROGRAM

Evidence that educators are coming to realize the importance of work as an integral part of education at all levels is further indicated by the quotation at the beginning of this article and by the recent grant made by the General Education Board to the Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute for a three-year study of co-operative work programs.¹

¹ Leo F. Smith, "A Report on Terminal Education in Junior Colleges: Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute Project," *Junior College Journal*, XI (May, 1941), 621.

Although this institution in Rochester is a privately endowed, nonprofit, technical institute operating at the post-high-school level, many of the techniques utilized in administering and co-ordinating the co-operative work program are applicable to both secondary and higher education. For many years the administrators of this school have been committed to the belief that an employed and productive worker is in a much better position to assume a worthy place in the community as a contributing citizen than is an unemployed philosopher. As a result occupational and general education are viewed as interrelated, and provision is made for continuous integration of work and school experience into the total education of each student.

The co-operative program is carried on in the mechanical, electrical, chemical, photographic technology, retailing, and food-administration departments. Students normally spend four weeks in school and four weeks on jobs closely related to their occupational goals. Only those kinds of employment which have a direct bearing on the vocational goals of the students are regarded as co-operative. Students are placed in jobs only where they receive the same wage as other beginning workers; this requirement is basic to the Institute philosophy, as it is believed that one of the major advantages of co-operative work is the feeling of status which accrues to the student as he assumes a place as a productive worker. During the school year 1940-41 more than six hundred students obtained work experiences, and their earnings varied from eight dollars a week with maintenance to twenty-two dollars a week without maintenance. Although the money received for the co-operative work is of great assistance to students with limited finances, the principal objective of the work experiences is to provide a catalyst in synthesizing and integrating theoretical and practical experiences.

The department heads, who are also responsible for counseling students in their departments, make contacts with industries for the purpose of obtaining co-operative jobs and select those individuals who are to be sent out for interviews. Because of the administrative setup of the Institute, the relation between the student and the counselor is extremely close. Counselors have at their command a "behavior journal"¹ which brings together the results of classifica-

¹ L. L. Jarvie and Mark Ellingson, *A Handbook on the Anecdotal Behavior Journal*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940.

tion examinations, incidents of student behavior noted by faculty members, summaries of conferences held with students, and periodic syntheses of individual adjustments and personal needs as revealed by the continuous picture obtained from the journal. With this body of information counselors are able to select students for certain industries and jobs which will be most beneficial to the students' total educational programs. Although personnel men in industry actually do the hiring of the students, weight is given to the suggestions made by counselors.

Rochester industries and businesses co-operating with the Institute look on all students as promotional material and normally arrange a sequence of jobs so that each student has the opportunity to make a special study of the processes in a plant or of the activities in a retail store. The Institute curriculums have likewise been constructed from activity analyses,¹ and each student is trained, not for unit trade skill, but for proficiency in a cluster of jobs within his chosen occupational field. Co-ordination of theory and practice is thus obtained as the student works on jobs within his chosen field and studies from manuals based on analyses of duties, skills, and attitudes exhibited by successful workers.

Follow-up studies which have been made of graduates indicate that co-operative education contributes very effectively to the student, the industries, and the community. For example, a study of 403 men who had graduated from the electrical department during 1925-39, inclusive, reveals that 96.7 per cent were employed and that of those employed 77.3 per cent remained in the field for which they were trained. This latter percentage is significantly higher than the 69.8 per cent reported in an older study,² which extends over a comparable period of time and which analyzes graduates of technical institutes not offering co-operative courses. It would appear from this that co-operative work provides an orientation to the vocational world which assists individuals, while in school, to clarify their occu-

¹ Mark Ellingson, "The Determination of a Curriculum by the Use of Job Analysis and Other Practical Techniques." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Rochester, 1930.

² Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, *A Study of Technical Institutes*, pp. 115-18. Lancaster, Pennsylvania: Lancaster Press, 1931.

pational goals and to establish contacts leading to permanent employment upon graduation.

The value of this type of education to industries is evidenced not only by their willingness to continue the relationship but also by the fact that, of the 337 electrical-department graduates accepted as trainees by co-operative companies, 44.8 per cent remained with the firms with which they had been co-operatively employed and 19.6 per cent were employed by other co-operative companies. Thus 64.4 per cent of the students who had held co-operative jobs remained with co-operative companies. Obviously a type of education which provides promotional material to industries and reduces the employee turnover of those inducted by this method to 35.6 per cent (100.0-64.4) over a fifteen-year period is looked on with interest and satisfaction by industrial leaders of the community.

The value of co-operative education to the community is evidenced in part by the satisfactory occupational adjustment already mentioned and by the ever increasing number of graduates who are assuming positions as contributing citizens in their own communities.

CONCLUSION

There is much to be said in favor of work as a regular and genuinely acceptable part of the school curriculum. Installation of these experiences in the secondary-school program necessitates a willingness on the part of administrators to sacrifice some of the traditional scheduling of class hours. School programs will have to be largely individualized to make it possible for pupils to go on the job when most convenient to employers. Unquestionably there will be administrative difficulties in initiating and co-ordinating the school work programs. Likewise there will be dissenters among the traditionalists as to the value and respectability of this type of education, but "there can be no doubt that for a considerable number of pupils in secondary schools practical constructive work is a better means of stimulating interest and initiating mental development than is any other kind of exercise."¹

¹ *What the High Schools Ought To Teach*, p. 21. The Report of a Special Committee on the Secondary School Curriculum. Prepared for the American Youth Commission and Other Co-operating Organizations. Washington: American Council on Education, 1940.

EXPERIENCE OF HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS AFTER GRADUATION

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WHAT further training and what work experience do boys and girls have after they graduate from high school? One graduating class was taken as a sample for a study of these questions—the 1937 class, numbering 227, of a general high school in an industrial and commercial city of 50,000 in New York State. All the families that could be located (72 per cent of the class) were visited.

The distribution of the graduates according to training received after graduation is presented in Table 1. More girls than boys attended college, undoubtedly because there is a women's college but no men's college in the city and girls could attend the local college for about half the cost of leaving home for college. Nearly three-fourths of the girls who went to college attended the local institution. Seven girls and eleven boys left home to attend college. It is probable also that more girls than boys took up some other training because there are local business schools giving secretarial training, which is more useful to girls than to boys, and because two local hospitals give nurse's training at very low cost to the student. The community offers more educational facilities for girls than it does for boys, and the figures show the result.

According to the data of this study, boys and girls are more often prevented from going to college by lack of money than by low marks. The economic level of these families was expressed in terms of *ammain* rating,¹ which is the annual expenses of the family as of

¹ The *ammain* is the ratio of the living cost of each age and sex compared to the cost for a young adult male, which is rated as unity. Thus, of two families with the same income, the larger family would have the lower *ammain* rating since there would be a higher total of *ammains* to divide into the income.—EDGAR SYDENSTRICKER and WILFORD I. KING, "A Method of Classifying Families According to Incomes in Studies of Disease Prevalence," *Public Health Reports*, XXXV (November 25, 1920), 2829-46.

1937 divided by the total ammain of the family group. The ammain rating combines the total yearly family income and the size and composition of the family in one figure. The average ammain ratings for boys and girls are given in Table 2. A regular decline is noted in the family finances from the college group to the no-training group, with the exception of the girls who went to college part of the time, whose ammain rating was \$1,080 compared with \$936 for the college group. This exception is due to the fact that three-fourths of the college girls attended the local college and lived at home, whereas

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF 164 HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES
OF 1937 ACCORDING TO AMOUNT OF
FURTHER TRAINING RECEIVED

TRAINING AFTER HIGH SCHOOL	BOYS		GIRLS	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Continuous college attendance...	11	17	27	28
Part-time college attendance...	9	14	7	7
Training other than college.....	14	21	38	39
No training.....	32	48	26	26
Total.....	66	100	98	100

all the part-time college girls attended out-of-town institutions where expenses were higher. The ammain ratings of those who took no training at all were only about half those of the college groups. Of twenty-nine boys who wanted to go to college but did not, only three had family ammain ratings equal to the average of the college boys, and only one of the college boys had an ammain rating as low as the average of the boys who had no training. Of the twenty-one girls who wanted to go to college but did not, not one had an ammain rating equal to the average of the college group, and only three had ammain ratings anywhere near it. Only one of the girls who went to college had an ammain rating as low as the average of the no-training group.

The marks attained in high school are also a factor in college attendance. Data in Table 2 indicate that the college group had the highest average and that the averages of the no-training group and

TABLE 2

INTERRELATIONS OF TRAINING RECEIVED AFTER HIGH-SCHOOL
GRADUATION AND FAMILY AMMAIN RATING, MARKS
EARNED IN HIGH SCHOOL, AND WORK RATING

GROUP	BOYS	GIRLS
Ammain Rating		
Attended college continuously.....	\$840	\$ 936
Attended college part of time.....	674	1,080
Obtained other training.....	506	560
Obtained no training.....	435	396
Entire group.....	\$550	\$ 658
Average High-School Mark		
Attended college continuously.....	81.4	84.1
Attended college part of time.....	74.3	77.4
Obtained other training.....	77.4	80.4
Obtained no training.....	74.5	76.3
Entire group.....	76.7	80.6
Work Rating		
Attended college continuously.....		
Attended college part of time.....	\$2,930	\$2,950
Obtained other training.....	1,980	2,350
Obtained no training.....	2,380	1,800
Entire group.....	\$2,500	\$2,300
Rank Correlation between Ammain Ratings and High-School Marks		
Attended college continuously.....	.09	-.01
Attended college part of time.....	-.28	-.01
Obtained other training.....	-.45	.17
Obtained no training.....	-.29	-.12
Entire group.....	.03*	.18*

* The correlations marked with an asterisk were calculated by the Pearson product-moment formula.

TABLE 2—Continued

GROUP	BOYS	GIRLS
Rank Correlation between Ammain Ratings and Work Ratings		
Attended college continuously.....		
Attended college part of time.....	-.11	.40†
Obtained other training.....	-.18	.06
Obtained no training.....	.37	-.03
Entire group.....	.18*†	.22*†
Rank Correlation between High-School Marks and Work Ratings		
Attended college continuously.....		
Attended college part of time.....	-.11	-.80†
Obtained other training.....	-.13	.24
Obtained no training.....	-.24	.18
Entire group.....	-.28*	.11*

† The correlations marked with a dagger represent only four cases.

the part-time college group were close. Individual schedules indicated that some of the pupils who had low average marks in high school started to college but left after a year or two.

There were more exceptions to the general trend in the case of marks than in the case of ammain ratings. Twenty-nine per cent of the boys who took other training and 6 per cent of those with no training had marks equal to the average of the college group and wanted to go to college, but none of them had an ammain rating equal to the average of the college group, the average ammain of the 29 per cent being only \$382 and of the 6 per cent only \$135—much below the average of the college group. Among the girls, 13 per cent of those who took other training and 8 per cent of those with no training wanted to go to college and had marks equal to, or better than, the average of the college group, but the average ammain ratings of the two groups were \$534 and \$311, respectively—much below the average rating of the college group. On the other hand, three of the eleven college boys and seven of the twenty-seven college girls

had marks no higher than the average of the boys or girls who took other training instead of going to college. There are more exceptions to the averages in the case of marks than in the case of financial ability. Here and there is found a graduate who, with low financial resources, does go to college, but he or she is a distinct exception, whereas there are a goodly number who want to go to college and whose high-school marks indicate ability sufficient for college but who cannot attend because they cannot meet the costs.

Twenty-one per cent of the boys and 39 per cent of the girls did not go to college but took up some other kind of training. What they did was determined largely by opportunities existing in the community. Thus about half of these boys and girls attended local business schools. In 1937 there was no business course in the high school studied. Another fifth of the boys took up apprenticeship in skilled crafts; some others, N.Y.A. and various other forms of training. Nearly a third of the girls took up nursing in the local hospitals, and a few became apprentices in beauty parlors. Most of those who took some training secured work in the fields in which they trained, but a good many, especially among the boys, secured various other forms of work.

Forty-eight per cent of the boys and 26 per cent of the girls tried to get jobs without any further training. The kinds of jobs that they secured are shown in Table 3. Twelve per cent of the boys' jobs were in business. These boys were salesmen. Most of the 29 per cent of jobs classified under shopwork were unskilled and semi-skilled factory jobs, while a few were apprenticeships and truck-driving. More than half of the clerical jobs were clerking in stores; a few were secretarial. In contrast, the clerical jobs of boys who had some training were almost all office work. The 12 per cent who had service jobs were waiters and elevator boys, and most of the jobs classified as labor were those of gas-station attendant. Nearly a fourth of the jobs secured by the girls who had no training were in factories. Nearly half of the jobs were clerical, and of these about two-thirds were clerking in stores and one-third office work. The clerical jobs of girls who had training were two-thirds office work and one-third clerking in stores. Service jobs for these girls were domestic service and waiting on table, whereas service jobs of girls with training were mostly

beauty-parlor work. Fifteen per cent of the girls without training and 16 per cent of those with training were married, but marriage is not included in the figures for jobs.

Work success is measured in terms of a work rating. For those who had no training after graduation, this figure is the total probable earnings for the time they worked at the kind of jobs they had during

TABLE 3

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTIONS OF OCCUPATIONS OF FATHERS OF HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES AND OF OCCUPATIONS ENGAGED IN BY GRADUATES THEMSELVES AFTER LEAVING HIGH SCHOOL

TYPE OF OCCUPATION	GROUP OF HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES							
	Attended College Continuously	Attended College Part Time		Obtained Other Training		Obtained No Training		Entire Group (Exclusive of College Attendants)
	Per-centage of Fathers	Per-centage of Fathers	Per-centage of Jobs of Grad-uates	Per-centage of Fathers	Per-centage of Jobs of Grad-uates	Per-centage of Fathers	Per-centage of Jobs of Grad-uates	Per-centage of Fathers
Boys:								
Professional.....	9	22	13	3	6	3
Business.....	55	22	9	7	10	12	11	9
Clerical.....	9	18	47	33	34	34
Skilled craft.....	9	9	36	7	30	26	3
Shopwork.....	18	56	37	36	13	27	34	26
Service.....	7	13	3	12	4	10
Labor.....	27	7	7	14	4	15
Absent from home or deceased.....	14	20	15
Girls:								
Professional.....	33	43	5	16	7	8
Business.....	30	14	24	12	19
Clerical.....	7	14	40	11	62	4	9	52
Skilled craft.....	11	29	17	28	22
Shopwork.....	24	12	23	17	10
Service.....	60	8	22	4	34	30
Labor.....	20	12
Absent from home or deceased.....	19	11	20	13

the four years since their graduation. For those who spent some time in college or other training, the rate of probable earnings for the time they were not in training is applied to the time spent in training. This procedure furnishes a figure for their work rating which represents what they would have earned if they had worked the entire time since graduation at the rate which they earned after they were in training. Work ratings are given in Table 2.

Those boys who obtained other training did not do so well, but

there were comparatively few of them and several had special difficulties and very little employment. More girls than boys followed their training in their jobs, and obtaining work for which they had trained seems to have been advantageous. About half of the girls without training worked at service and store jobs, and such employment is not well paid. For the boys, training seems to have been of little advantage during this four-year period, but it is not at all certain that the same situation will hold for subsequent years.

The correlations shown in Table 2 between high-school marks and family ammain ratings, between work ratings and ammain ratings, and between marks and work ratings are all too low to be significant. There seems to be no tendency for higher marks and better family economic conditions to go together. Nor is there any tendency for better earnings and higher marks to be associated; what slight relationship there is for boys and girls together is negative ($-.08$). It is to be remembered, however, that the abilities of all reached a certain level, since all were high-school graduates.

A survey of Table 3 shows a general downward trend of occupations of fathers from the college group to the no-training group and a roughly similar trend in the jobs of the graduates. The college graduates will be in the professional and business classes; many of those who have obtained other training will move up; but most of the boys without training will remain store clerks and shop workers. The trend for the girls is more evident when it is noted that two-thirds of the clerical jobs held by girls with training were in offices while about two-thirds of those held by girls without training were jobs of clerking in stores. Present educational opportunities do not break the continuity of socio-economic class.

The high school involved in this study had no vocational courses in 1937. After graduation the boys and girls had to seek special training of some kind or go to work. Those who had enough scholastic ability and, what is more important, enough money went to college. In this city, with its women's college, higher education was more possible for girls than for boys, and more girls went to college. Others tried to get some other training, and what they obtained depended on their financial resources and the opportunities offered by the community: business, nursing, and apprenticeships. Still

others had to work, and what they did depended largely on what they could get at the time.

Families and boys and girls plan as best they can, but the chief force directing the energies and abilities of the graduates of this community is the opportunism of the available job. Aptitudes and abilities are not directed or utilized except in a most haphazard manner. The graduates must flounder around and perhaps find a good paying job which suits their abilities, or they may gradually get caught in some line of work or service in which they must continue because they have no training for anything else. Our educational facilities are but poorly geared to the actual needs of the average boy and girl and fail to come anywhere near a meaningful ideal of universal education.

PERSONAL VALUES AND THE DIRECTION OF BEHAVIOR

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*

PERSONAL values have been discussed recently by students of personality and behavior¹ as important directive factors in individual behavior. The Allport-Vernon test of values was constructed, and has been used experimentally, to study the relation of personal values to other objective measurements of personality. Encouraging results have been reported,² which indicate that value

¹ Among the best of such studies are the following:

a) W. H. Cowley, "The Educated-Man Concept in the Twentieth Century," *School and Society*, LII (October 19, 1940), 345-50.

b) Fritz Kunkel, *Character, Growth, Education*, pp. 5-6. Translated by Barbara Keppel-Compton and Basil Druitt. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1938.

c) Robert E. Park, "Human: Nature, Attitudes, and the Mores," *Social Attitudes*, p. 30. Edited by Kimball Young. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1931.

d) Daniel Alfred Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process*, pp. 59 ff. A Report of the Committee on the Relation of Emotion to the Educative Process. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938.

e) James Melvin Reinhardt, *Social Psychology*, p. 246. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1938.

f) Edward Chace Tolman, *Purposive Behavior in Animals and Men*, chap. xix. New York: Century Co., 1932.

² See, for example, the following:

a) Hadley Cantril and G. W. Allport, "Recent Applications of the Study of Values by G. W. Allport and P. E. Vernon," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXVIII (October, 1933), 259-73.

b) Elizabeth Duffy, "A Critical Review of Investigations Employing the Allport-Vernon Study of Values and Other Tests of Evaluative Attitude," *Psychological Bulletin*, XXXVII (October, 1940), 597-612.

c) Daniel Harris, "Group Differences in Values within a University," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXIX (April, 1934), 95-102.

d) H. M. Richardson, "Community of Values as a Factor in Friendships of College and Adult Women," *Journal of Social Psychology*, XI (May, 1940), 303-12.

e) P. E. Vernon and G. W. Allport, "A Test for Personal Values," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXVI (October, 1931), 231-48.

f) Paul L. Whitely, "A Study of the Allport-Vernon Test for Personal Values," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXVIII (April, 1933), 6-13.

patterns seem to agree with the vocational choices and other activities of individuals. The now massive literature on attitudes seems to demonstrate nothing more clearly than that attitudes are not basic directive factors in behavior but that they are secondary to some personal characteristic which is less changeable in response to various situations. Selecting ideas from the sources just mentioned, the writer has arrived at a hypothesis with reference to the way in which an individual's unique personal pattern of thinking and acting comes to be expressed in everyday behavior. The elements of the hypothesis are not startlingly new, but they are not commonly found in the literature.

First, it appears that each person develops a pattern of personal values as a continuously growing residue of his total experience. A "value" is defined here as any object, condition, activity, or idea which the individual believes will contribute to his well-being. A person's values characteristically exist in a rank order from high positive value, through a neutral area, to high negative value. Thus an individual may place a high positive value on wealth, a high negative value on political activity, and be neutral toward religious activity. An individual may not be aware of all the values which influence his behavior.

Second, the value pattern of a person is the criterion by which that individual judges the possible effects on himself of any situation which may confront him, as well as the criterion by which he selects a course of action in the situation. Thus the hypothetical individual whose values were described above, if confronted with a situation which offered several courses of action, would select the course leading to an increase in wealth, reject the course leading to political activity, and ignore the course leading to religious activity.

Third, attitudes are expressions, in many possible forms, of the individual's opinions of how affairs are going for him in the light of his personal values. Attitudes, then, would be functions of the combination of value pattern and specific situation. Thus the individual described above would exhibit a positive attitude toward the situation offering wealth, a neutral attitude toward the situation offering religious activity, and a negative attitude toward the situation involving political activity.

Far from being as simple as this description implies, very complex relationships must exist among the many values in an individual's pattern, and among those values and the almost unlimited possibilities presented to him by the constantly changing panorama of situations he meets.

Research on such a hypothesis would, of necessity, begin with the creation of a technique for measuring personal values in such a way that each person's own unique patterning of values could express itself freely. Such freedom of expression is not possible in any of the two or three tests of values now described in the literature. Another needed step is the development of a technique for measuring behavior in ways that will permit comparing it with value patterns. The creation of these two basic techniques will open many new avenues of research. This article deals with the development of a technique for measuring values.

THE TESTING TECHNIQUE

The method of building a value test is too long to describe here. However, the writer has recently developed such a technique in generalized form.¹ A specific test of twelve values, "A Study of Choices," was then constructed along the lines of the generalized technique. The test consists of three personal problems to be solved. Each problem offers eight possible courses of action, and each course of action is keyed for the value it offers. Each value appears in two of the three problems, so that in addition to allowing a comparison of the value patterns exhibited by the person in each of the three problems, it is possible to make a composite pattern of twelve or more values by combining the solutions to the three problems. Each problem involves four steps: (1) a preliminary survey of the problem and its eight available courses of action, and the selection of the two most attractive and the two least attractive courses of action; (2) the recording of a series of brief comments, both favorable and unfavorable, to each of the eight courses of action; (3) a detailed analysis of the courses of action by means of a series of paired comparisons; and

¹ Asahel D. Woodruff, "A Study of the Directive Factors in Individual Behavior." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Chicago, 1941. Copies may be found in the libraries of the University of Chicago, University of Utah, and Brigham Young University.

(4) a final decision on the two most attractive and the two least attractive courses of action.

The problems are briefly described, as in the following example.

Problem B.—One's life after college is often influenced by the social activities engaged in during college years. There are usually a number of different social groups, such as clubs, fraternities, dormitory groups, and such organizations on every campus. Each one has its own particular strong points, so that the student must decide what to do in the event he has the opportunity to join one or more of these groups.

The courses of action are described in terms of the outcomes which are likely to follow them. For example, Group 1 is described as follows:

This group is often referred to as the "400" of the campus. It *dominates the social activities*. Membership in the group brings *high social distinction*. The members care little for positions of influence in other lines of activity as though such activities were unimportant to them. They do not maintain an elaborate "house" but take pride in the traditions which have grown up around the old quarters. The group is small and finds its satisfaction primarily in the society of its own members and its own particular group interests.

The paired comparisons contrast the positive values of the various groups as follows:

a) Group 1 dominates the social activities of the campus and has high social distinction. Group 2 successfully controls student activities and campus politics.

b) Group 4 gives its members a sense of social ease and poise and a fine personal attractiveness. Group 5 is closely related to a religious organization and encourages religious ideals and sociability.

Answers are recorded in a separate answer booklet. This procedure facilitates scoring and makes the test booklets available for repeated use. The scoring is done on a separate score sheet, which puts the problem solutions into a meaningful picture. The test yields, in addition to the value pattern, the following scores: (1) an index of the individual's insight into the value meanings of each problem and its courses of action; (2) an index of the individual's tendency to change his choices as he analyzes a problem; (3) an index of the extent to which the individual is aware of the changes that he makes in his choices; and (4) an index of the consistency of the individual's choices within the three problems. Information with

regard to the values considered most important by the subject and the approximate neutral point in his value pattern may be obtained from the comments recorded in each problem, which function as a projection test.

SOME DATA

There are at least three ways of studying the validity and the reliability of such a test. (1) Widely different kinds of groups can be tested, where all the members of each group have a somewhat uniform personal background so that each group is homogeneous in makeup. (2) Homogeneous groups may be tested where the group's homogeneity is a product of the elective activity of the group members and where two or more groups can be found whose elective activities show a contrast as judged by the values involved. (3) The test can be administered to individuals with whom a personal interview can be obtained and for whom much personal information is available. All three of these possibilities were employed by the writer, and some 350 individuals were tested in fourteen groups with a wide variety of background and activity patterns. In general the results indicate a high degree of validity for the test and yield strong evidence that values are closely related to individual behavior. A few of the data are described here.

Groups A and E presented interesting contrasts in value patterns as well as in group backgrounds. Group A was composed of sixty-two Freshmen at the University of Chicago. The average age was eighteen, and thirty-seven of them were men. The home backgrounds of the students were extremely varied, but there should have been some scholastic and intellectual homogeneity because of the entrance requirements and the reputation of the school. Group E was composed of seven college Freshmen in southern Utah who had completed a three-year seminary course parallel with their high-school work and who were known to be actively engaged in the activities incident to the program of the dominant church in Utah. Group A was probably more sophisticated, urban, and intellectualistic than Group E, and Group E was probably more religious and

rural than Group A. The order of importance of the values for the two groups are shown below.

<i>Group A</i>	<i>Group E</i>
1. Friends	1. Friends
2. Home life	2. Religion
3. Social service	3. Home life
4. Personal attractiveness	4. Personal attractiveness
5. Intellectual activity	5. Social service
6. Security	6. Security
7. Political power	7. Comfort
8. Comfort	8. Intellectual activity
9. Society	9. Society
10. Wealth	10. Excitement
11. Excitement	11. Wealth
12. Religion	12. Political power

Certain test scores show Group E to be much more homogeneous on all the values than Group A—a finding which agrees with the known facts concerning the backgrounds of the two groups. Significant differences exist in the ranking of religion, intellectual activity, and political power, all of which agree with what is known subjectively about the two groups.

Another comparison which illustrates the differences in values related to differing backgrounds and also illustrates the differences related to elective activities is that of Groups A, H, and J. Group H was composed of twenty-three men studying for missionary service in a well-known theological center. The ages averaged twenty-four years. The factors of selection at the school are fairly rigorous, and it is to be expected that the men who enter will be very homogeneous as to ambitions, ideals, and beliefs about life in general. The students' postgraduate lives will be devoted to public service, often in notorious disregard of personal comforts, and corresponding value patterns might be expected to be revealed by the test. Group J was composed of nineteen Hebrew scholars studying in an orthodox religious college. Their average age was twenty-one years. Here too the selection is high, and the values should be somewhat like those in Group H, although the theological beliefs and practices of Groups H and J are necessarily different. Both Groups H and J should present

a decided value contrast to Group A, whose members elected to attend a liberal and cosmopolitan college where religion fares poorly among the students. The order of importance of the values of the three groups are shown below.

<i>Group A</i>	<i>Group H</i>	<i>Group J</i>
1. Friends	1. Religion	1. Social service
2. Home life	2. Social service	2. Religion
3. Social service	3. Home life	3. Home life
4. Personal attractiveness	4. Friends	4. Intellectual activity
5. Intellectual activity	5. Intellectual activity	5. Friends
6. Security	6. Personal attractiveness	6. Security
7. Political power	7. Security	7. Personal attractiveness
8. Comfort	8. Comfort	8. Comfort
9. Society	9. Political power	9. Political power
10. Wealth	10. Society	10. Society
11. Excitement	11. Wealth	11. Wealth
12. Religion	12. Excitement	12. Excitement

Test scores indicate that Group H (the missionary students) was the most homogeneous group of the fourteen groups studied, that Group J (the Hebrew scholars) was fourth in homogeneity, and that Group A (Freshmen at the University of Chicago) was last of the fourteen groups. There is a significant agreement between the value patterns of Groups H and J; no value differs by more than one position in its ranking in the two groups, while the last five values in the lists are identical. On the other hand, a strong contrast may be noted in the rank order assigned some of the values by Group A and by the other two groups.

Although religion ranks lowest in the value pattern of the members of Group A, there is a statistically significant difference in the ranks assigned religion when Group A is divided into subgroups on the basis of active or inactive church membership. Those who professed such membership placed religion just above excitement in eleventh place, whereas those who professed no such membership placed it below excitement in twelfth place. The critical ratio of the difference between its rank positions for the two groups is 3.00 for the seventeen-year-old students, and 3.51 for the eighteen-year-old students. These ratios give evidence of a high degree of sensitivity

in the test and also indicate that daily behavior is responsive to slight differences in the value patterns of individuals.

When the test was applied to the problem of social mobility, as the term is used by W. Lloyd Warner and others in their studies of the social organization of modern cities, it was found that ten socially mobile persons put society and political power significantly higher than ten nonmobile persons and that the nonmobile persons put comfort and security significantly higher than did the mobile group. The mobile group tended to put wealth and personal attractiveness higher, and social service, home life, and religion lower, than the nonmobile group. Seven other variables in the test seemed to move (by less significant amounts) in directions which agree with subjective expectations based on familiarity with case studies of mobile and nonmobile people.

Analyses of tests given to individuals indicate that the validity is high even for individual testing. The ranks assigned to the values by three individuals in Group A are shown below.

<i>Student A 57</i>	<i>Student A 28</i>	<i>Student A 49</i>
1. Intellectual activity of theoretical type for entertainment	1. Political power	1. Social service
2. Friends	2. Excitement in a job	2. Political power
3. Personal attractiveness	3. Wealth	3. Personal improvement through constructive activity
4. Political power	4. Intellectual activity as recreation	4. Intellectual activity
5. Wealth	5. Society	5. Friends
6. Intellectual activity for practical purposes	6. Religious living daily	6. Social ease and poise
7. Excitement incidental to a job	7. Personal attractiveness	7. Security
8. Social service	8. Friends	8. Home life
9. Security	9. Security for self	9. Society
10. Society	10. Intellectual activity on job	10. Comfort
11. Comfortable house and good food	11. Social service	11. Excitement
12. Excitement as end in self	12. Home life	12. Religion
13. Home life	13. Comfort	13. Wealth
14. Religion	14. Security for all	
15. Relaxation and recreation	15. Excitement	
	16. Formal religion	

Student A 57 was a woman, twenty-one years of age, reared and educated in a large city. The family income was said to average from fifteen hundred to three thousand dollars annually. The woman was active in church and in a campus religious organization. Of forty-nine comments written by this woman, forty-one referred favorably to the first five values in her list. They emphasized the desirability of associating with successful, interesting people. She wanted to become a Washington correspondent and freely expressed a desire to become famous and obtain prestige. While in college she planned to specialize in political science and journalism.

Student A 28 was an eighteen-year-old male Freshman, reared in a large city, with a family income in excess of three thousand dollars annually at all times. In his comments he expressed approval of excitement when it was related to constructive activity, but not as an end in itself. He scorned mass security as being "socialistic" but approved individual security through one's job as "a better level of personal security." He disliked formal religion because it is "churchy" but liked "dynamic" religion as a way of living. His father had urged him to become a research worker in chemistry, but he had found this prospect extremely distasteful and asked the interviewer how he could convince his father that he should be allowed to go into some political field or into journalism or both. In this case, too, the majority of comments, thirty-four out of fifty-four, referred favorably to his first five values, the theme of which agrees well with his personal ambitions.

Student A 49 was also eighteen years old, male, a Freshman, and of city background. The family income and education approximated those of Student A 28. This man intended to specialize in international relations and go into the United States foreign service. In high school he was active in school politics and helped organize an "Older Boys Conference" in South Chicago. He said he had "found much real resulting satisfaction from helping the boys." He regarded political power as a "means toward being in a position to help solve world-problems."

As yet no statistical coefficient of validity is possible for the test because there is no good external criterion against which to validate it and also because the test yields no single score from which such a

coefficient may be readily calculated. Nevertheless, it is obvious, from a careful reading of all the data, that the test is valid and that the first and the last quarters of each value pattern can be accepted with complete confidence. There is reason to believe that validity may even extend to finer discriminations when more adequate criteria are available. A reliability coefficient must await the construction of equivalent forms and repeated administrations, but analysis of the consistency of value patterns from problem to problem within single tests indicates that reliability will not be less than .75 and probably will be as high as .86. It is also evident from the data that there is a very close relation between the value pattern and the behavior pattern of an individual. Questions as important as they are interesting relate to the degree to which the value pattern remains constant in all behavior, and the extent to which it is possible to predict behavior from a value pattern.

INTERPRETATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Educators are concerned not only with the acquisition of skills and knowledge but also with the development of character and wholesome adjustment. Values appear to exert their greatest influence in the latter area, but, unless wholesome adjustment is achieved, progress in acquiring skills and knowledges is likely to suffer, as educators well know. Thus values exert an important influence on the whole educative process. There are several ways in which studies of values may yield valuable knowledge and progress in promoting pupil adjustment.

1. That the major activities of some maladjusted persons will prove to be out of harmony with their value patterns is a most promising hypothesis. This type of study has a definite place in American schools, where pupils all too commonly are steered by well-meaning advisers into curriculums which fail to meet their personal desires. A school administrator might make a tentative study of this problem by studying the values of his problem students in relation to several aspects of their school work. It is possible that a student's value pattern will lead a counselor directly to the basic materials for a solution of the student's problem, without the need of falling by chance onto some open-sesame to the student's cherished desires.

Following the writer's generalized technique, value tests could readily be set up for such studies at any desired age level. Numerous comments of students who took the test in the course of the writer's study afford evidence that the experience of taking the test is, in itself, a valuable means of coming face to face with considerations of importance to the student.

2. It is of great importance to educators to know the factors that influence a child's developing pattern of values. These factors can be studied through the use of experimental situations, as well as by the case-study method. Probably the case-study method can be made to furnish promising suggestions which can be tested in experimental studies.

3. More information about the nature of the relation between a student's value pattern and his daily behavior, especially his behavior in the face of important problems, can be obtained at almost any grade level by a combination of value-testing and behavior-analysis techniques. The two techniques should be equated in terms of the values being tested.

4. The solution of pupils' adjustment problems will be helped by a knowledge of the general course of development of the pattern of values, with special reference to such questions as whether children have relatively identical value patterns at any age level and, if so, when noticeable differentiations begin to appear; whether sex differences are important at any age level; and what are the relative effects of various types of classroom organization and procedure on the pupils' values.

On the strength of evidence already obtained by use of the "Study of Choices," there is reason to expect important results from a widespread effort to understand the function of personal values in individual behavior. The technique discussed here should prove helpful in such research.

DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND OF HIGH-SCHOOL YOUTH

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THE findings reported here constitute part of a larger study on social backgrounds and ideas of high-school youth. By questionnaire, data for different parts of the study were secured from 8-12 high schools, each enrolling 150-500 pupils, in each of 9 states. The number of pupils who participated in the study ranged from 1,644 to 2,007 in the various states, and the schools were geographically distributed over the states concerned. The communities represented are essentially rural and small urban localities.

The part of the study reported here deals with the ages of pupils, the percentage of pupils born outside the state of residence, the ages of the living parents, and the percentages of pupils whose parents have died.

AGE OF PUPILS AND PERCENTAGE BORN OUTSIDE THE STATE

In part of the states included in the study, the high schools are preceded by a seven-year elementary school, in part of the states by an eight-year elementary school. Moreover, it is generally known that during the past two decades there has been a marked net migration out of some states and into others. An effort was made, therefore, to determine to what extent these facts—migration and length of elementary-school period—affect high-school youth. Pertinent data on these subjects appear in Table 1.

In Georgia, Louisiana, and North Carolina—states in which a seven-year elementary school is typical—high-school youth of both grades and both sexes are, in general, somewhat younger than are those in the other states (one exception is found in the case of Senior boys in Illinois compared with those in Georgia). The difference,

TABLE 1

NUMBER AND AVERAGE AGE OF FRESHMEN AND SENIORS IN HIGH SCHOOLS
OF NINE STATES AND PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS BORN OUTSIDE THE STATE

STATE	FRESHMEN			SENIORS		
	Number	Average Age	Percentage of Pupils Born outside State	Number	Average Age	Percentage of Pupils Born outside State
California (65.9):*						
Boys.....	265	15.09	37.7	198	17.57	22.2
Girls.....	226	14.38	37.1	247	17.36	29.1
Georgia (13.2):						
Boys.....	195	14.44	9.0	217	17.29	9.5
Girls.....	277	14.16	8.7	310	17.05	6.9
Illinois (37.1):						
Boys.....	293	14.51	6.5	229	17.27	11.8
Girls.....	303	14.36	9.5	207	17.14	10.6
Louisiana (18.4):						
Boys.....	193	14.37	12.4	152	17.06	15.8
Girls.....	219	13.95	18.2	183	16.80	14.2
North Carolina (9.7):						
Boys.....	216	14.09	2.7	149	16.81	11.4
Girls.....	266	13.61	7.1	189	16.54	9.0
Oklahoma (52.6):						
Boys.....	209	14.89	20.6	158	17.85	17.7
Girls.....	207	14.60	22.2	195	17.45	17.9
Pennsylvania (23.0):						
Boys.....	272	14.98	6.2	163	17.64	6.1
Girls.....	270	14.69	7.0	179	17.30	10.6
Washington (63.8):						
Boys.....	217	14.86	27.6	242	17.60	30.2
Girls.....	253	14.44	22.9	219	17.36	28.7
Wyoming (68.2):						
Boys.....	173	14.52	32.9	204	17.49	28.9
Girls.....	163	14.28	29.4	217	17.25	24.9
Total:						
Boys.....	2,033			1,712		
Girls.....	2,184			1,946		

* The figures in parentheses represent the percentage of the total population born outside the state. These data are adapted from *Fifteenth Census of the United States: 1930*, "Population," Vol. II: "General Report," Tables 15 and 16, pp. 146, 147. Data for Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina, and Oklahoma are for white persons only; data for other states are for the total population.

however, between the average ages of high-school youth in these three southern states and the averages in the other states is usually much less than a year—the difference in length of elementary schooling. Exceptions to this statement occur in the comparison of Freshman boys in North Carolina with those in California, in the comparisons of Freshman girls in North Carolina with those in Pennsylvania and with those in Oklahoma, and in the comparison of North Carolina Seniors of both sexes with Oklahoma Seniors of both sexes. Hence it appears that, so far as the present data indicate, the shorter period of elementary schooling in the three southern states does not necessarily allow youth to reach the high-school grades at correspondingly younger ages than is the case in other states. Age at the time of entering school and retardation after entry seem to be explanatory factors in this situation.

The average age of boys is higher than that of girls, for all states and for both grade levels. Various possible explanations for this fact may occur to readers. It may be that girls start to school younger than do boys, on the average, and, progressing at the same rate, arrive in high school at younger ages, although there seems no particular reason for a sex difference in the age of starting to school. There may be less retardation among girls than among boys. Thus boys who have arrived at economically useful ages, in communities such as those here represented, may more often than girls be absent from school because they are working. Moreover, adolescent boys typically have more non-school interests than do girls and consequently devote less time to academic study. In addition, boys are thought more often than girls to irritate teachers with disciplinary problems, and annoyed teachers may reflect their irritation when distributing promotion marks. Furthermore, in schools where there is a summer session for the benefit of "flunkers" and of pupils with ambitions to advance rapidly, girls may be freer to attend than are boys. In this study, however, no data concerning summer sessions were obtained.

In no case is the average difference in age between Freshmen and Seniors as much as three years. This fact suggests that the reduction in average age due to the dropping-out of over-age pupils somewhat more than offsets the increase in average age due to retardation.

Attendance at summer sessions, where such attendance occurs, would likewise be a factor tending to reduce average age among Seniors.

Variation appears among the states in the percentage of pupils who were born outside the state of residence. However, in only one pupil category indicated, Senior boys in North Carolina, is the percentage of high-school youth born outside the state as large as the percentage of the total population born outside the state. At first glance the percentages of pupils born outside the state show no consistent differences in the two grade levels represented. This similarity suggests that migration, so far as it is reflected in high-school attendance, has not intensified socio-economic stratification sufficiently to result in an increased number of families with children who have entered high school but who have been unable to continue into the Senior year.

On closer scrutiny, however, certain differences among groups of states can be detected. Thus, for the states of California, Oklahoma, and Wyoming larger percentages of Freshmen than of Seniors were born outside the state of residence, whereas for Illinois, North Carolina, and Washington larger percentages of Seniors than of Freshmen were born outside the state. For the other three states this comparison gives no consistent results when all sex and grade categories are considered. The difference between the first two groups of states might be interpreted to mean that migration to such states as California, Oklahoma, and Wyoming has been more recent than migration to such states as Illinois, North Carolina, and Washington and, accordingly, that families in the first group of states include more young children who have not yet reached the last year of the high school, whereas migration at a slightly earlier date in the second group of states would mean that more of the older pupils were born outside the state and more of the younger ones within the state. The data, however, do not justify pushing this point too far. Moreover, a factor in the case of California might be the presence in the lower high-school grades of Mexican-born children, many of whom drop out before reaching the Senior year.

It is of interest to note that in 1930 more than half the inhabitants of four of the nine states (white only in Oklahoma) had been born outside the state of residence. This fact reflects heavy migration of

population within the nation and has educational importance from two standpoints. It is important for the financial support of schools, because it means that in many instances the community in which a child is reared and educated is not the one in which he will spend his productive adult life. The relation of this situation to equalization of educational burden among different communities, and to federal support for public education, has often been pointed out in recent years. The fact of migration also has educational importance from the curriculum standpoint. If large percentages of our people spend their adult lives in communities quite different from those in which they are reared and educated, they should receive a type of education which will function in any community rather than a type which is closely anchored to the particular local community where they attend school. This implication points to emphasis on general education, although specific experience from the local community may well be the medium through which general principles are made concrete and understandable for the learner.

AGES OF LIVING PARENTS

Data concerning the ages of living parents of high-school youth appear in Table 2. It will be noted that the fathers of Freshmen are about evenly distributed between the two age categories 36-42 years and 43-49 years, whereas the modal age for the fathers of Seniors is distinctly in the category 43-49 years. Nearly twice as large a percentage of the fathers of Seniors as of Freshmen are fifty-seven years of age or over. The modal age for mothers, of both Freshmen and Seniors of both sexes, is in the age category 36-42 years. Only one-fourth as large a percentage of Seniors as of Freshmen have mothers thirty-five years of age or less.

The foregoing data suggest that age of parent, within the age-category differentiations here shown, is not a factor in determining which of the sexes is most likely to continue in high school until the Senior year. Thus there appears no support here for the view that, if the mother is "getting along in years," a daughter is likely to drop out of school to assume home responsibility or that an analogous situation prevails for a son in relation to the father. However, the parental ages here considered are not those of senile incapacity.

The table indicates that a substantially larger percentage of

Freshmen than of Seniors have young parents, while a substantially larger percentage of Seniors than of Freshmen have old parents. Part of this difference is, of course, due to the fact that Seniors are about three years older than Freshmen, but it is doubtful whether all the difference is due to this factor. It may be that persons who marry and begin rearing families while they are still young are less able to

TABLE 2
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION, ACCORDING TO AGE, OF LIVING PARENTS OF FRESHMEN AND SENIORS IN HIGH SCHOOLS IN NINE STATES

AGE OF PARENTS	PERCENTAGE OF PARENTS OF FRESHMEN		PERCENTAGE OF PARENTS OF SENIORS	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Fathers:				
35 or less.....	5.4	6.3	0.3	0.8
36-42.....	32.6	33.2	20.6	23.0
43-49.....	32.6	32.2	35.1	33.8
50-56.....	20.4	19.3	26.2	26.6
57 or over.....	9.0	9.0	17.8	15.8
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of pupils reporting.....	1,685	1,843	1,414	1,635
Mothers:				
35 or less.....	21.3	22.8	5.1	5.2
36-42.....	41.9	40.3	38.8	43.0
43-49.....	24.5	24.0	32.4	31.1
50-56.....	10.7	11.4	17.6	16.5
57 or over.....	1.6	1.5	6.1	4.2
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of pupils reporting.....	1,725	1,917	1,464	1,720

provide the economic resources necessary to carry the children through high school than are persons who marry later and hence are older when they begin rearing families.

Preliminary tabulations (not here included) were made for the separate states. These tabulations showed that for Freshmen the modal ages for both parents were higher in California, Washington, and Wyoming than in the other states. In these three states the ratio of men to each hundred women is larger than that in the other

states here included;¹ at the age of twenty-five or thirty years a smaller percentage of the men are married in these states than in any of the other six states;² and the median size of family is smaller than in any of the other states considered.³ These facts seem related to the higher modal ages of parents of high-school youth in these states. Georgia showed a higher percentage of old fathers, for both Freshmen and Seniors, than did any other state.

PERCENTAGES OF PUPILS WHOSE PARENTS HAVE DIED

Whether a parent is living or dead may affect the opportunity of a child to continue his education through the high school. Data on this point appear in Table 3.

A larger percentage of pupils, for each sex and each grade, have lost their fathers than have lost their mothers. When the data were tabulated for the states separately, the same relationship was found to exist among all the thirty-six categories except one—Georgia Freshman boys. Commenting, in an earlier study, on the greater mortality of fathers than of mothers of high-school youth, the writer said:

This fact is not peculiar to the high-school population, and it reflects such factors in the general population as the greater vocational risk in man's employment, age of the two parents at marriage, etc. The fact that more pupils are without fathers than are without mothers is, however, important from the standpoint of the role of the school in pupil guidance. The adolescent is more likely to lack the kind of guidance expected from the father than the kind expected from the mother. This fact raises the question of a possible relation between the more frequent loss of the father than of the mother and the predominance of males among high-school delinquents.⁴

The fact, however, that a larger percentage of high-school youth have lost their fathers than have lost their mothers may be interpreted to mean that the death of the father has less effect on a youth's continuance in high school than has the death of the mother, irrespective of the sex of the youth concerned. This view is sub-

¹ *Fifteenth Census of the United States: 1930, "Population,"* Vol. II: "General Report," Table 6, pp. 103-7.

² *Ibid.*, Table 18, pp. 917-25.

³ *Ibid.*, "Population," Vol. VI: "Families," Table 44, p. 37.

⁴ Harold H. Punke, "Home and Family Background of High-School Pupils," *School Review*, LXIV (October, 1936), 605.

stantiated by a comparison of Freshmen and Seniors, which shows that a somewhat larger percentage of Seniors than of Freshmen have lost their fathers, as would normally be expected with the passing of time. However, the percentage of Seniors of either sex who have lost their mothers is smaller than the corresponding percentage of Freshmen. Apparently pupils who have lost their mothers tend to drop out of school between the Freshman and the Senior years to a greater

TABLE 3
PERCENTAGES OF FRESHMAN AND SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL
PUPILS WHO HAVE LOST FATHERS AND PER-
CENTAGES WHO HAVE LOST MOTHERS

GRADE AND SEX	FATHERS		MOTHERS	
	Number of Pupils Reporting	Percentage of Pupils Whose Fathers Are Deceased	Number of Pupils Reporting	Percentage of Pupils Whose Mothers Are Deceased
Freshmen:				
Boys.....	2,019	8.9	2,022	5.7
Girls.....	2,176	9.7	2,183	6.1
Both.....	4,195	9.3	4,205	6.0
Seniors:				
Boys.....	1,705	10.6	1,706	5.3
Girls.....	1,938	10.7	1,941	6.0
Both.....	3,643	10.7	3,647	5.7

extent than do the average of the student body. The foregoing statements do not, of course, mean that the death of the father has no relation to a youth's continuing in high school, but they suggest that it may have less effect on high-school attendance than does the death of the mother.

Perhaps another interpretation could be placed on the relative mortality of the two parents. Perhaps a certain percentage of pupils of either sex will be affected by the death of either parent (a percentage possibly about equal to the percentage of pupils in this study who have lost their mothers), and, after this group or social stratum

of the high-school population has been affected, the death of parents representing other strata does not greatly affect pupil attendance. This view might seem feasible as an explanation of the greater number of deaths among fathers than among mothers, or of the greater number of deaths among the fathers of Seniors than among the fathers of Freshmen, but it does not harmonize with a higher death-rate among mothers of Freshmen than of Seniors. In any case the view should not be accepted uncritically.

In both grades the percentages of girls whose fathers and mothers have died are greater than the corresponding percentages of boys. Thus, if either parent dies, a girl seems more likely to continue in high school than does a boy. This difference between pupils of the two sexes holds fairly well when data for individual states (not here presented) are considered. Thus in six of the nine states a larger percentage of Senior girls than of Senior boys had lost their fathers, and in six states a larger percentage of Senior girls than of Senior boys had lost their mothers. Perhaps an important part of the shock on the family which accompanies the death of a parent is economic, and boys are better earners than girls. In some instances it may also be true that, if families are unable to send all children through high school, the girls more than boys are thought to need whatever social prestige may attach to a high-school education.

SUMMARY

Certain summary statements of the findings of this study may be in order.

1. High-school youth in the three southern states of Georgia, Louisiana, and North Carolina, in which a seven-year elementary school is typical, average somewhat younger than youth of corresponding high-school grades in the other states considered, but the difference is usually less than the difference in the length of elementary schooling.
2. The average age of boys in the schools studied is somewhat higher than the average age of girls, for all states and for both grade levels.
3. The difference in the average ages of Freshmen and Seniors is slightly less than three years.

4. There is variation among states in the percentage of pupils born outside the state of residence, but, with the possible exception of Illinois, the states in which large percentages of the total population were born outside the state are also states in which large percentages of high-school pupils were born outside the state.

5. For most pupil categories differentiated in the study, the percentage of pupils born outside the state is significantly smaller than the percentage of the total population born outside the state.

6. In 1930 more than half the inhabitants in four of the nine states considered (white only in Oklahoma) had been born outside the state.

7. Roughly two-thirds of the living fathers of Freshmen are from thirty-six to forty-nine years of age, with the modal age for fathers of Seniors being somewhat higher than the mode for fathers of Freshmen. The modal age for mothers of both Freshmen and Seniors is in the category 36-42 years, with a modal age as such appearing somewhat more clearly in the case of mothers than of fathers.

8. The percentage of the pupils of either sex who have lost their fathers is greater than the percentage who have lost their mothers.

9. In both grades the percentages of girls whose fathers or mothers have died are greater than the corresponding percentages of boys.

LOCAL HISTORY: A MEANS OF BETTER UNDERSTANDING UNITED STATES HISTORY

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SIGNIFICANCE OF LOCAL HISTORY

WHY is it difficult to arouse interest in history? What can be done to make United States history seem more alluring? To the average person United States history is rather an impersonal matter. Textbooks, because they are prepared for use in many sections of the country, are of necessity written in general terms. The broad movements—political, social, and economic—apparently have little application to a limited community. Therefore it is easy for a student to ask, "Why should I be interested in history which tells me nothing of a local character?" Unless this objection is overcome, history will continue to be a dry, lifeless subject for many.

At the opposite extreme from these broad historical discussions dealing with the country as a whole, or with large sections of it, is local history. As its name implies, local history deals with a limited area. The history of a state, a county, a township, a city, or any other local area, or of the people within the section, is a phase of local history. It is the story of that which happens at home, and it may be the means of making courses in American history, both in high school and in college, absorbing to teachers and students alike.

Studying local history is the means of learning the application of the wider national movements to conditions near at hand. A large central phase of history is broken down into parts as they apply to Scott County in Iowa, Lancaster County in Pennsylvania, or Worth County in Missouri, or any of the thousands of other local communities. Furthermore, the study of many phases of American history has not yet been completed. Since the nation as a whole is made up of these many local units, a knowledge of the history of what happened in the parts (counties, townships, towns, etc.), as it could be

developed in courses in various areas of the country, could be brought together to help form the history of the whole.

By the use of illustrations applying particularly to Ringgold County, Iowa, and more general examples from the Middle West states, I will try to show how the history of this section of the country ties up with the story of the nation and how local history gives an understanding of the community reaction to diverse national events.

EXAMPLES FROM ONE COMMUNITY OF USE OF LOCAL HISTORY

At the Fourth of July celebration held in Mount Ayr, Iowa, in 1878, the speech of the day was delivered by Edward B. Heaton, the county surveyor. It has been preserved and is now in the possession of the Ringgold County Historical Society. A quotation from that speech shows how the people felt about the Civil War:

Thirteen Fourths of July have passed since we laid aside the bayonet and the saber and resumed the implements of peace. Those years have beheld a national progress unequaled in the annals of the world. New states have sprung into life, other stars have beamed in the national firmament. The West and the East have been joined together in bonds of iron, the North and the South are fraternizing in bonds of fellowship more enduring than ribs of steel.

History is studied so that we may better appreciate and understand the development of this nation and guide our actions in the future. Another quotation from Heaton's speech might well be taken to heart today in these troublesome times:

Once more have we gathered ourselves together to commemorate the birth of a great nation, the mightiest, as well as the one representative republic on the globe. Once again have we met to renew our vows of love and fealty to that flag, that, wherever it floats, is the emblem of liberty and equal rights, and the symbol of the most beneficent form of government known to man. . . .

Heaven . . . has so ordered things that the close of great wars, especially of civil wars, have always been followed by years of great social and moral, as well as financial, depression and demoralization.

These last are words of wisdom indeed, not from a president of the United States, or a senator, or some other national figure, but from a local man.

Social history has been receiving an increasing amount of emphasis in recent years. In this connection the entertainment and the

enlightenment of man are considered. Nearly every community has had in the past a series of chautauqua and lyceum programs. By going back into old newspaper files, the students can learn how their parents and grandparents acquired culture.

The development of the American educational system is included in a course in United States history. Here a study of the rural schools, the beginnings of a graded system, and the early struggles of an academy or small college in the vicinity helps the pupils to understand the larger movements. For example, from the *Ringgold Record* of July 11, 1878, one learns that Truman Ellis and Robert Williams closed their schools the week before. This item is an indication that schools were conducted much later into the summer than they are at present. Many other interesting facts would be revealed by further study.

In an agricultural section of the country, developments in farming may be made extremely vivid by having an older person relate how things were done when he was young and how farming has changed during his lifetime. It will also be possible to find out at first hand how active were the farmers' institute, the Grange, the Farmers' Union, and other movements. Hazy, intangible notions about these movements may be made vibrant ideas about living happenings which influenced people within a radius of a few miles instead of in another state or locality.

What has been said of agriculture will likewise apply to manufacturing districts. The change from the independent businesses operated by small independent craftsmen to large capitalistic organizations, with resultant labor troubles and other problems, may have been a firsthand experience to some persons in the community.

What has been the reaction of the people to various presidents of the United States is a question which may arise in the classroom. Local history often gives the answer. Ulysses S. Grant's popularity in southern Iowa is attested by an item in the *Ringgold Record* for July 11, 1878. As a test of his popularity someone proposed three cheers for him on the Fourth of July. "They were given with a vim, and thrice more would have been given had they been asked. These were not partisan cheers, but the almost unanimous cheers of the multitude."

Local records, such as the newspapers, will portray the roles that various political parties played in any community. These political parties would include not only the Republican and Democratic organizations but also third-party movements, such as the Greenbacks and the Populists. People of the younger generations today think of these latter parties only as broader movements, little realizing that their county might have had a strong organization and have heartily supported third-party policies.

An example of the type of political speeches to be found in checking back through the years is an address delivered in 1891 by R. C. Horr, congressman from Michigan, at the Blue Grass palace in Creston. As he was considered one of the ablest men of the Republican party, it was to be expected that his addresses in southwest Iowa should be extensively quoted, and the *Ringgold Record* carried excerpts from his speeches. In one instance Horr asserted that the wonderful crops which the country had been having were a prophecy of a Republican victory in Iowa at the next election. Alas for the Republicans, Governor Boies, a Democrat, continued in office until 1893.

The history of railroad development well illustrates the relations between local history and United States history. Railroads were an important phase in the expansion to the west. Thus a study of the demands for a railroad to reach Mount Ayr, the building of the railroad, the joy of Ringgolders in having achieved their desires in 1879, and something of the subsequent development and then the decline in the importance of railroads is significant as a section of the entire history of railroading. Such an account would aid in helping appreciate how railroads met the pressing needs of people in one community and in developing a realization that the same was true in many other places. At the same time the bringing-together of various studies of this and similar localities could help in producing the complete picture of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad, the Chicago, Great Western Railroad, the Santa Fe Railway, and others.

The settlement of various parts of the United States may be amply illustrated by taking a cross-section of the community and

studying the people's nativity. Here will be shown the presence of Danes, Germans, English, Irish, and other foreign-born, together with settlers from Pennsylvania, Ohio, North Carolina, and other states. By this means the intermingling, the "melting-pot," may be better appreciated.

In connection with westward expansion the Blue Grass League of southwest Iowa should not be overlooked as one of the finest examples of the relation between local history and the broader movements. The Blue Grass League was a promotion scheme, organized in 1889 to advertise "to the world the unexcelled advantages of the blue-grass region of southwestern Iowa as a place for a permanent home-building and bringing to the notice of intending immigrants of older states the superiority of soil, climate, water, and natural resources and productions of the territory named." In 1888 Mount Ayr already had a Farmers' Agricultural Association for promoting the interests of the county. On April 4, 1889, the editor of the *Ringgold Record* was asking, "Shall we have a Ringgold County Blue Grass club, and co-operate with all other counties in southern Iowa, or shall we hide our talents in the earth?" A later issue of the *Record* further outlined the purpose of the league. It was their aim to show that in Iowa corn could be grown with as large yields as elsewhere, that tame grasses could be used for late autumn and early winter pasture, and that blue grass was valuable as winter pasture for horses. It was believed that advertising would benefit the farmers by making it possible for those who wanted to sell to find buyers and for those wanting to borrow to get more on their farms. The towns would benefit through the general development of the country: "We have the best country under the sun. Let's let folks know it."

Mr. Tedford, the editor of the paper at that time, was backing the movement strongly. He wrote in one issue: "Monday, April 22, is the time when Oklahoma will be thrown open for settlement. The schemers, boomers, tricksters, and gamblers will be there in force, and an honest decent man will have no chance. Stay in the 'blue-grass' region of Iowa, yea rather."

What was true of Mount Ayr was likewise true of all eighteen counties of southwest Iowa and of most of the towns within those

counties. All had their local Blue Grass Leagues, farmers' associations, or boards of trade and were also members of the central Blue Grass League. In connection with the league the Blue Grass palaces were built in Creston in 1889, 1890, and 1891 as one means of advertisement.

The Blue Grass League and palace had its counterparts elsewhere. Sioux City had its corn palace and Ottumwa its coal palace. Towns in Illinois and South Dakota also had exposition halls. At that time the entire Midwest was carrying out a promotion scheme in order to attract immigrants from the older eastern states and from the foreign countries. The Ringgold County Blue Grass League was only a small part of this movement of developing the agricultural regions of the United States, but it is a fair cross-section and helps to make pupils realize the importance of this development.

Wars are generally thought to concern the nation as a whole, but they also have a local significance. The general opinion is that all the soldiers of the North in the Civil War were opposed to the idea of slavery and wished to free the slaves. However, a check revealed that many of the soldiers fighting in Iowa regiments were young men who had been born in England, Canada, Ireland, Germany, and various other foreign countries and who were comparatively recent immigrants to the United States. In addition to the foreigners, men from Kentucky, Florida, Alabama, and every other southern state were soldiers in the Iowa forces. It becomes necessary after a study of local history to revise our ideas a bit; for many of these men would not have formed particularly definite ideas about the Negroes in a short time.

Through a study of local history can be shown the reactions of people for or against the Spanish-American War, let us say. Evidently this section of Iowa was favorably inclined as several men volunteered for service in the Philippines.

The effect of depressions on a local community can be determined by a study of local records. All too often we think only in terms of the present. Newspaper files of 1873 and the 1890's show that the editor was then lamenting hard times. This finding will cause a pupil to realize that past conditions had a very personal effect on his ancestors.

POSSIBLE COMMUNITY RESOURCES

These examples could easily be increased, but the few described here give a fair idea of the relation between local history and the broader United States history. Also, when a student begins to see the local application of part of his country's history, he is likely to see that that which does not apply to his region will apply to another section and to the people within that area.

A program of using examples from local history to illustrate the lessons in a course in American history cannot be developed overnight or in a single year. A teacher might do well to start with one phase on which he knows the material is available. From this, other phases may be developed, and eventually many data will be brought together and organized. There are many persons who will be of aid in finding the necessary facts. Nearly every state has a state historical society or state historical department, which publishes a quarterly journal and books. In these publications it may be possible to find information regarding a particular part of the state. Some state organizations furnish slides and other material which would be useful in teaching history.

Many counties have historical societies. These will usually be only too glad to lend diaries, journals, account books, and other historical items in their possession. Some of the members will probably aid in organizing the material and offer suggestions of where further documents or facts may be secured. Old-timers may be called on to reminisce and thus add to the store of historical memoranda for the community. Of even greater help is the editor of the local paper. He will be glad to make available old files of newspapers, for editors, generally, take pride in their paper and its past. The librarian also will often have useful material in the library or will be able to suggest possible sources.

The teacher can use his own ingenuity on how to make use of the facts gathered regarding local history. Some manuscript letters or items from the newspaper may be copied and read as illustrations in connection with a lesson. Particularly interesting manuscripts and articles of historical significance may be photographed and made into slides to be shown to the entire class, the relations between the items and history as a whole being brought out. Students may

be assigned to write papers based on local history and to show the connection between the local record and the lesson in the textbook. In this way it will be possible to illustrate to the student that history has been written by drawing on letters, journals, newspapers, and diversified items and bringing these together to make a more complete picture of events. Above all, the teacher not only should keep a copy of all material gathered for use if he transfers to another school, but he should be careful that copies are kept in a file for the school. In this way, over the years, many of the lessons will have available examples from local history.

Thus, by use of community resources complete reliance on a textbook is avoided. However, local history should not at any time be considered as the ultimate in the teaching of history; rather it must be thought of as a means to an end, that end being a better understanding and appreciation of United States history.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY- SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

I. CURRICULUM, METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION, AND MEASUREMENT

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THE following list of selected references opens the tenth annual cycle of lists covering almost the whole field of education, which is being published co-operatively by the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal*. The sequence within the cycle will be the same as in all previous years of the decade.

In this list, as in its nine predecessors, the term "instruction" is a comprehensive one, including curriculum, methods of teaching and study, supervision, and measurement. The vertical extent of secondary education is assumed to reach through junior high school, senior high school, and junior-college years.

To one who has been preparing lists in the field over the period of a decade, the amount of material of high quality both in books and in periodicals seems to have shrunk rather suddenly. If this observation is correct, it may be hoped that explanation resides in nothing more than chance. There would be real ground for regret if the shrinkage is a result of the almost universal preoccupation with the international problem, since a time like the present should stimulate rather than discourage deliberation over, and investigation of, instructional problems.

A notable exception to the downward trend in quantity and quality is in the area of what is called "terminal education" at the junior-college level. The emphasis here appears to be indicative of widespread discontent with the curriculum in these years, not only in junior colleges but in other types of institutions, and seems to be prophetic of far-reaching modification of the traditional curriculum at this level.

CURRICULUM^{*}

1. BABSON, HELEN. "Progress at Eagle Rock High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVI (May, 1941), 299-303.
Brings up to date the description of the curriculum developments in Eagle Rock High School in Los Angeles.
2. BASS, W. W. "Occupational Analysis as a Basis for Curricula," *Junior College Journal*, XI (February, 1941), 311-15.
Describes and reports briefly from results of an occupational analysis, made by the Chanute (Kansas) Junior College, of the community and one outside industry employing a number of the junior-college graduates.
3. BELL, HOWARD M. "Adventures of a Workshopper," *Educational Record*, XXI (October, 1940), 470-76.
Describes the author's experience as a consultant in nine summer workshops sponsored jointly by the Progressive Education Association and the departments of education of several colleges and universities.
4. BERMAN, SAMUEL. "Mobilizing Our Educational Forces," *School Executive*, LX (October, 1940), 11-12, 38.
Proposes a common core curriculum of democratic essentials for all pupils enrolled in secondary schools.
5. BETHEL, LAWRENCE L. "Singularity in Terminal Education," *Junior College Journal*, XI (March, 1941), 370-74.
Discusses the factors that may be responsible for the lag in the development of unique programs in terminal education.
6. BODE, BOYD H. "Needs and the Curriculum: A Discussion of Reorganizing Secondary Education . . . and a Reply by V. T. Thayer," *Progressive Education*, XVII (December, 1940), 532-40.
Bode attacks the recent volume on *Reorganizing Secondary Education* by V. T. Thayer, Caroline B. Zachry, and Ruth Kotinsky; and Thayer refutes his criticisms.
7. BROWNLEE, ROBERT E. "Developing the Core Curriculum at University High School," *University High School Journal*, XIX (November, 1940), 15-56.
A detailed account, illustrated with charts and forms, of the core program at University High School, Oakland, California.

^{*} See also Items 432 (Bobbitt), 439 (Palm), and 442 (Van Brunt and Nutter) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1941, number of the *Elementary School Journal*; Items 504 (Douglass), 506 (Eells), 508 (Engleman and Eells), and 513 (Aikin and Aikin) in the October, 1941, number of the *School Review*. Item 239 (*The Business Curriculum*) in the March, 1941, number of the *School Review* contains two articles of importance for this list: "A Philosophy of the Curriculum" by W. Carson Ryan (pp. 1-6) and "The Foundations of Curriculum Making" by Frederick J. Weersing (pp. 159-70).

8. BRUNER, HERBERT B., EVANS, HUBERT M., HUTCHCROFT, CECIL R., WIETING, C. MAURICE, and WOOD, HUGH B. *What Our Schools Are Teaching*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. xii+226.
An analysis of the contents of selected courses of study with special reference to science, social studies, and industrial arts. Generic as to school level.
9. CLEMENT, J. A. "Curricular Trends: I. Interpretations and Implications of Eight Recent Studies," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XV (January, 1941), 274-85.
Offers brief explanations and interpretations of some of the data collected by the Commission on Curricula of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for eight studies of curriculum trends. Also indicates some significant implications of the facts and of the beliefs expressed by secondary-school theorists and practitioners throughout the North Central states.
10. CLINE, E. C. "Providing for 'Nonacademic' Pupils," *School Executive*, LX (February, 1941), 41-42.
Outlines the manner in which the Richmond (Indiana) Senior High School is successfully providing for the large group of nonacademic pupils enrolled in the secondary schools. States five assumptions made in regard to pupils' nature and needs and considers administrative aspects.
11. COCKING, WALTER D., and HARTFORD, ELLIS F. "Regional Research Enriches the Curriculum," *School Executive*, LX (January, 1941), 22, 71.
Describes briefly the work of the Advisory Panel on Regional Materials of Instruction for the Tennessee Valley, which interested itself in the curriculum problems of a total program of education. Generic as to school level.
12. COREY, STEPHEN M. "Subject Matter: Means or End?" *School Review*, XLIX (October, 1941), 577-86.
Contends that the fundamental differences of opinion among curriculum experts most often relate to the means rather than the ends of education.
13. EELLS, WALTER CROSBY. *Why Junior College Terminal Education?* Prepared for the Commission on Junior College Terminal Education. Terminal Education Monograph No. 3. Washington: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941. Pp. xii+366.
Presents a discussion of, and materials bearing on, the philosophy of terminal education. Includes chapters by John W. Harbeson, Edward F. Mason, Nicholas Ricciardi, William H. Snyder, and George F. Zook.
14. EURICH, ALVIN C. "Some Implications for General Education," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVI (March, 1941), 149-52.
Considers certain features of the present program of general education in California junior colleges, as revealed by data obtained from a questionnaire study made in 1939-40, and makes a number of proposals for carrying out an adequate five-year program of general education.

15. FOWLER, BURTON P. "An Appraisal of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association," *Educational Record*, XXII, Supplement No. 14 (January, 1941), 106-21.
Appraises favorably the achievements of the Eight Year Study of the Progressive Education Association.
16. GAUMNITZ, WALTER H. "Rural Youth and Secondary Education," *School Life*, XXVI (January, 1941), 105-7.
Points to the need of curriculum revision in rural secondary schools and describes briefly the "folk school," with names of a number of such schools. Also includes a list of suggested references.
17. GIESE, W. C. "Education for Blind Alley Jobs," *Secondary Education*, IX (December, 1940), 263-67.
Considers the question of what type of education is best suited for the majority of high-school pupils destined for unskilled labor.
18. HARBESON, JOHN W. "Meeting the Needs of Terminal Students at the Junior-College Level," *School Review*, XLVIII (October, 1940), 577-87.
Discusses ways of meeting general-education and vocational needs of terminal students in the junior colleges; analyzes the major areas of human needs; and gives examples of junior colleges which are meeting needs for terminal education in specific fields.
19. HERZEL, A. H. "How a School Determined Pupil Needs," *Curriculum Journal*, XI (December, 1940), 358-60.
Outlines the manner in which a group of teachers of Skinner Junior High School, Denver, Colorado, investigated the real needs of the pupils, particularly those in the core classes.
20. HOLLINSHEAD, BYRON S. "Terminal General Education at the Junior College Level," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXVI (December, 1940), 570-77.
From observations during visits made by the author to fifty-eight junior colleges and to certain other institutions while he was consultant for the General Education Board from February to July, 1940, Hollinshead gives recommendations for developing programs of terminal general education in junior colleges.
21. HOLLINSHEAD, BYRON S. "Some Essentials of Terminal Occupational Education at the Junior-College Level," *School Review*, XLIX (February, 1941), 97-103.
Recommendations concerning terminal occupational education at the junior-college level which were derived from the project of visitation serving as the source of the preceding item by the same author.
22. HOPKINS, L. THOMAS. *Interaction: The Democratic Process*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1941. Pp. 490.
A discussion of the educative program from the standpoint of the "outstanding characteristic of the democratic process," which is assumed to be "emphasis upon co-operative social action." Generic as to school level.

23. HUNT, HELEN J. "Curriculum Development at Claremont Junior High School," *University High School Journal*, XIX (February, 1941), 63-78.
Describes the experimental curriculum reorganization carried on in the Claremont Junior High School, Oakland, California.
24. HUTCHINS, ROBERT MAYNARD. "The Junior College and Terminal Education," *Junior College Journal*, XI (May, 1941), 547-54.
Recommends the reorganization of the junior college on the four-year plan, with a terminal program of general education provided to meet the needs of youth in our society.
25. JUDD, CHARLES H. "What Is Happening to Our Human and Natural Resources?" *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXIX (October, 1940), 203-4.
Points out that, through a new concept of planning, pupils should be encouraged to think constructively about better adjustment of natural resources to human needs.
26. MANG, BROTHER WILLIAM, C.S.C. "The Catholic High School Boy and Required Subjects," *Catholic Educational Review*, XXXIX (March, 1941), 141-51.
Presents data on the subject-matter requirements in the curriculum of the Catholic high schools for boys in the North Central Association area.
27. MARSHALL, JAMES E., and VARNER, GLENN F. "Our 3 Curriculums Provide for Individual Differences," *Clearing House*, XV (March, 1941), 428-31.
Discusses the pupil-personnel or educational-guidance program of Central High School at St. Paul, Minnesota, which is administered through three curriculums—college-preparatory, commercial, and general. The general curriculum is organized to provide for individual differences.
28. PIERCE, PAUL R. "The Evolving Pattern of a High School Curriculum," *Curriculum Journal*, XII (February, 1941), 70-73.
Describes the evolving core-curriculum pattern in general education at Wells High School, Chicago, Illinois—a program begun in September, 1935.
29. "Plans and Activities To Meet the Needs of Nonacademic Pupils," *Educational Outlook*, XV (November, 1940), 42-58.
A symposium made up of an introduction and statements by eight persons who describe their efforts to meet the needs of nonacademic pupils in science, industrial arts, social studies, language, mathematics, guidance, and the general program.
30. SAYLOR, GALEN. *Factors Associated with Participation in Co-operative Programs of Curriculum Development*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 829. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. xiv + 256.
A comparison of school systems in Virginia to ascertain the types of situations in which the state program of curriculum development will function best.

31. SCHULTZ, FRANK G. "Nature and Extent of Terminal Curriculum Offerings in 31 Junior Colleges," *American School Board Journal*, CI (October, 1940), 29-30.
The findings of a survey of the actual terminal curricular offerings in thirty-one junior-college catalogues selected at random.
32. SMITH, R. R. "Back to the General in Chicago's Municipal Colleges," *Education*, LXI (March, 1941), 403-5.
Discusses the program of general education offered in the public junior colleges of Chicago.
33. SPAULDING, FRANCIS T. "Educational Needs of Nonacademic Pupils," *Educational Outlook*, XV (November, 1940), 32-41.
Discusses the problems of identifying the nonacademic pupils in the secondary schools, defining their needs, and ascertaining how these needs are being met and what more can be done to meet them.
34. STIGLER, W. A. "Recent State Curriculum Programs," *School Executive*, LX (June, 1941), 19, 23.
Reports a study of the types, common objectives, varying modes of attack, and significant contributions of recent curriculum programs of sixteen states. Generic as to school level.
35. TYLER, HARRY E., and McLAUGHLIN, J. O. "The Present Program of General Education," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVI (March, 1941), 145-48.
Reports evidence obtained from a questionnaire study in 1939-40 of general education in California junior colleges.
36. TYLER, RALPH W. "The Place of the Textbook in Modern Education," *Harvard Educational Review*, XI (May, 1941), 329-38.
Reviews eight major trends in modern education and considers the place of the textbook in relation to these trends.
37. VARNER, GLENN F. "A Challenge to the Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, XI (March, 1941), 381-84.
Discusses the educational needs of the average high-school graduate and how local junior colleges might serve these needs with terminal courses.
38. WELTZIN, J. FREDERICK. "Legal Controls of the Curriculum," *American School Board Journal*, CIII (September, 1941), 22-24, 83.
Examines court decisions in cases in which the validity of curriculum legislation has been questioned and, on the basis of these dictums, outlines legal principles controlling what shall be offered, what may be taught, and what may be studied in the educational systems of this country.

39. WRIGHT, MARY JOHNSON. "An Integrated Program," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXV (April, 1941), 53-56.
Describes the operation of the integrated program in the secondary school in Harrisonburg, Virginia.

METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION¹

40. BELL, JOHN W. "Supervision in the Chicago High Schools," *American School Board Journal*, CIII (August, 1941), 21-22, 67, 69.
Outlines the duties of the district superintendent in the Chicago public-school system and describes the supervisory program. Reproduces samples of a bulletin issued to the principals and of a report made to the superintendent of schools after a survey of a district high school.
41. COREY, STEPHEN M. "The Teachers Out-talk the Pupils," *School Review*, XLVIII (December, 1940), 745-52.
Analysis of classroom "talk" in a laboratory high school to obtain evidence on possibilities of growth of pupils in understanding.
42. FOX, JAMES HAROLD. "Newer Instructional Practices," *School and Society*, LIV (July 26, 1941), 49-52.
Sets forth some of the causes of the failure of newer instructional practices in many schools. Generic as to school level.
43. GILES, H. H. *Teacher-Pupil Planning*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1941. Pp. xii+396.
A consideration of classroom procedures designed to secure maximum pupil participation, which the author regards as essential to the democratic purpose. Includes one large part devoted to "supplementary illustrations." The emphasis is at the secondary-school level.
44. MARSH, HARRY B. "New Responsibilities in Supervision," *School Executive*, LX (March, 1941), 14-16.
Outlines and recommends for the principal a broad and comprehensive program of supervision and points out how the principal can train himself to assume the responsibility of administering such a program satisfactorily.
45. RISK, THOMAS M. *Principles and Practices of Teaching in Secondary Schools*. New York: American Book Co., 1941. Pp. viii+728.
A book on methods in secondary schools, which deals with some fundamental problems of teaching, learning activities and the attainment of desired outcomes,

¹ See also Item 548 (Jacobson and Reavis) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1941, number of the *School Review*. Item 40 (Reavis) in the January, 1941, number of the *Elementary School Journal* contains an article on "Characteristics of Effective Instruction" by G. T. Buswell (pp. 53-64).

organization of courses of instruction and units, methods of planning and organizing classroom activities, and stimulating and directing classroom activities and measuring outcomes.

MEASUREMENT¹

46. JONES, GALEN, and GALBRAITH, ADRIA. "The Interpretation of Standardized Tests," *School and Society*, LIV (September 20, 1941), 224-27.

Points to the need in the public high schools for test manuals in which the emphasis is on interpretation; comprehensive, cumulative pupil-personnel records; and the services of such an agency as the Educational Records Bureau.

47. ROSS, C. C. *Measurement in Today's Schools*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1941. Pp. xviii+598.

A functional approach to measurement, with emphasis on the multitude of problems relating to the intelligent use of tests and their interpretation by classroom teachers and school administrators.

48. SEGEL, DAVID. "Some Newer Practices in Evaluation," *School Life*, XXVI (June, 1941), 269-70.

Discusses the three areas of improving evaluation, namely, adaptation of the new-type question, improvement of the essay question, and the evolution of new methods of evaluating pupils' reactions. Generic as to school level.

¹ See also Item 468 (Falk) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1941, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

Educational Writings



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A BASIS FOR PLANNING YOUTH'S RECREATIONS.—The dearth of recreational opportunity for youth in a mechanized world is a topic that shows little sign of relinquishing the significant role which it has occupied in educational literature during the past ten years. Among the materials of this type currently issued is a survey¹ by the American Youth Commission dealing with the leisure-time problems facing our young people and the objectives for meeting these problems on a long-view basis.

Two complementary theories of recreation—relaxation and creative recreation—are discussed in an introductory section for the purpose of bringing home to the reader the new meaning of recreation. The first chapter is devoted to the recreational needs of youth and stresses the plight of young people in low-income groups, notably Negro youth. How to provide guidance for youth in order to insure satisfactory use of three mediums that occupy a large share of their leisure time, namely, motion pictures, radio, and reading, makes up the content of the second chapter. After a description of commercial recreations, somewhat detailed consideration is given to the strengths and shortcomings of the schools, the public libraries, and local authorities as recreational agencies. Privately supported community agencies, community planning, state recreation functions, and federal services in recreation, respectively, form the material of chapters v–viii. The ninth and final chapter is devoted to major objectives and recommendations for the planning of recreation. Preceding the main content of the book are a foreword by the director of the American Youth Commission and a preface and acknowledgments by the authors. The final chapter is followed by an index and a brief statement of the origin and makeup of the American Council on Education.

The summarizing of the services of existing recreational agencies, rural as well as urban, from “cellar clubs” to Civilian Conservation Corps, is comprehensively and effectively done. School people will find much food for thought in the discussion of the school’s potential role in recreation. The illustrations, though limited in number, are timely and artistic in effect. The objectives and recommendations in the concluding chapter grow naturally out of the preceding content and implement convincingly the stated aim of the report: “To establish

¹ C. Gilbert Wrenn and D. L. Harley, *Time on Their Hands: A Report on Leisure, Recreation, and Young People*. Prepared for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1941. Pp. xxii+266. \$2.00.

a basis for policy-making and planning in recreation for youth" (p. 247). This volume should be an extremely useful handbook for school people, social workers, public officials, and interested lay citizens in their work to improve the recreational living of American youth.

PAUL R. PIERCE

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GENERALIZATION OF PROBLEMS AND TEACHING TECHNIQUES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.—One may be quite certain that any book bearing a title such as "Fundamentals of Teaching," "Principles of Teaching," "Practice of Teaching," "Principles and Practices of Teaching," etc., will be broad in scope and exhibit some duplication of material and ideas contained in other books previously published. Risk's recent book¹ confirms that contention. It is a general treatise on the various teaching techniques employed in secondary schools.

Although the content of Risk's book is similar to that found in many other textbooks, its organization and style are somewhat different. The author has divided the book into five main parts, which are termed "units." These units are entitled "Some Fundamental Problems of Teaching," "Learning Activities and the Attainment of Desired Outcomes," "The Organization of Courses of Instruction and Units," "Methods of Planning and Organizing Classroom Activities," and "Stimulating and Directing Classroom Activities and Measuring Outcomes." Each unit is divided into several chapters, with a total of twenty-nine chapters. The content of the book is not so specifically organized as the titles of the units would signify. For example, the first unit, "Some Fundamental Problems of Teaching," devotes but a small portion to actual "problems." Many of the chapters in other units could be classified under "Problems of Teaching" as appropriately as those contained in the first division of the book. Each unit is preceded by an "overview," covering approximately one page.

The content of the book indicates the author's broad understanding of the problems involved in secondary-school teaching, and the presentation is such as to suggest wide experience in introducing these problems to students in training. The constant attempt of the author to clarify terminology is especially commendable.

A considerable portion of the book is devoted to educational psychology. If the book were used as a textbook for college students, the criticism might be made that the material duplicates that found in the psychology textbooks. The author is justified in his references to psychological factors, however, in that he links them with practical teaching problems.

The book would not constitute a significant addition to a library that already has a careful selection of professional books in the field of secondary education.

¹ Thomas M. Risk, *Principles and Practices of Teaching in Secondary Schools*. New York: American Book Co., 1941. Pp. viii+728. \$3.00.

It is condensed and not too readable. Its main purpose would be, as the author apparently has intended, to serve as a textbook for students in training and particularly in a course dealing with methods of teaching in the secondary schools.

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E. C. BOLMEIER

ESSAYS ON INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN THE ENGLISH CLASS.—Recent decades have witnessed the accumulation of a vast body of professional literature relating to individual differences in almost every aspect of pupil achievement and endowment. Numerous objective studies have shown clearly that pupils in a given class or grade or age level differ widely in skills, abilities, understandings, appreciations, social adjustments, or any other phases of human behavior or constitution. The literature also abounds in treatises on procedures for adjusting the curriculum and instruction to individual differences. The doctrine of individual differences has been so widely accepted (although much less widely practiced) and the mass of available objective data so impressive that the appearance of a new book on the subject would not ordinarily gain much attention. However, a recent book under the appealing title of *Pupils Are People*¹ is destined not only to attract attention but to exert considerable influence over the teaching of English.

The volume consists of twenty-six essays by teachers of English and general educators from widely scattered geographical areas and all levels of education. Part I, "The Meaning of Individual Differences for English," is made up of five essays and develops the thesis that respect for the individual is rooted in the democratic way of life, in the laws of learning, and in the physical constitution of people. Part II, "Recognizing Individual Differences in the English Class," directs attention to ways in which individual differences manifest themselves in the English class. Parts III and IV, "Providing for Individual Differences in English through Reading" and "Providing for Individual Differences in English through Writing," suggest procedures for meeting the needs and interests of pupils both in the classroom and out. A feature in the back of the book deserves special mention. It consists of more than two hundred questions or topics, arranged in convenient categories and supplied with page references, to which answers may be found in the body of the text.

Unlike many books in this field, which stress quantitative differences among pupils in terms of test scores, this volume deals, in the main, with the more "human" and less tangible aspects of individual differences, such as social and economic backgrounds, interests, emotional balance, social and personal values.

¹ *Pupils Are People*. A Report of the Committee on Individual Differences, National Council of Teachers of English, Nellie Appy (chairman). National Council of Teachers of English Monograph No. 13. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1941. Pp. xiv+304. \$2.25.

The authors do not assume that the chief problem in providing for individual differences is so to group pupils homogeneously and to effect instructional techniques that all pupils in the group will come out with nearly the same learning products. Rather, *Pupils Are People* stresses the individuality of the pupil; every pupil is a person, not merely a member of the class. The thesis of the book is that the teacher's task is to know the pupil well and to adapt instructional procedures and curriculum content to his personal needs and interests without losing sight of the individual's relation and responsibility to his group.

In the reviewer's opinion the book suffers one major weakness: its diffuseness. Like so many collections of essays by a number of persons, the book lacks the unity necessary for forceful presentation of a thesis. Some of the essays are only remotely related to the heart of the problem. An essay entitled "Who Are the Americans?" for example, is related to individual differences only in the sense that any discussion of the English curriculum and teaching techniques would be related to that topic. Even so, teachers of English will find this collection of essays on individual differences stimulating and challenging. The pupils emerge from the pages of this book as real people.

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FIRST AID FOR THE UNTRAINED EMERGENCY LIBRARIAN.—For the professional librarian there is a manual on every phase of technical work. He has, moreover, had opportunity to discuss and apply much of the content under expert direction in a library school. But throughout the land there are hundreds of small libraries whose budgets include nothing for salaries and whose administration is presumably the responsibility of a merciful providence. In each of these small libraries some teacher is struggling to bring order and utility out of a miscellaneous collection of books. If he is lucky, a portion of his time is assigned to this task; but, if he is not so fortunate, he is trying to accomplish the task in stray moments. He is not a graduate of any library school and usually does not even have professional supervision. Nevertheless, he must organize the school library and make it work.

It is for this harassed teacher that a new handbook¹ has been written. Its chief predecessors have been the many manuals and library sections in courses of study prepared in particular cities or states for the pressing needs of their local situations. Now, under the auspices of the American Library Association, Mrs. Douglas, state director of school libraries in North Carolina, presents within a single elastic framework a standard procedure which incorporates much of the same useful material found in those scattered sources. The Introduction states the specific purpose:

This book is not intended as a substitute for training. It is designed to give the untrained person concrete help in beginning to organize a small school library, so that

¹ Mary Peacock Douglas, *Teacher-Librarian's Handbook*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1941. Pp. xviii+136. \$1.90.

when training is secured none of the work need be redone, although it might need to be amplified. It is designed also to help the teacher-librarian with some training by providing in one book an outline of suggestions and techniques for developing a school-library program in a simplified way [pp. xi-xii].

As the basis for promoting a standard procedure, accepted standards for elementary- and secondary-school libraries are quoted, together with a statement of the philosophy of school-library service. Concrete directions then begin and constitute the main body of the book. Wherever current professional practice shows latitude in method, only one method is recommended and described in detail in order that the inexperienced beginner may not become confused.

Where to find the mechanical and clerical assistance imperative to any achievement of order is discussed in a chapter called "The Pupils and the Teacher-Librarian." Then follow sections on the organization of the book collection, its classification and cataloguing, book selection and ordering, the treatment of miscellaneous printed material, circulation methods, instructions to pupils in the use of books and libraries, care of books and room, necessary equipment, arrangement, and supplies. There are suggestions for publicity and the promotion of reading; lists of materials and the agencies that supply them; a glossary of technical terms; a good index; and a valuable bibliography, from which the teacher-librarian may choose his tools for more intensive development of certain phases of the work.

Book selection is likely to be a thorny path for the untrained librarian. The chapter on this subject includes criteria for evaluating books for library purposes and gives a list of sources for consultation of expert opinion.

The section treating classifying and cataloguing provides an abridged outline of the Dewey decimal system of classification which is probably inclusive enough to serve without investment in the large Dewey manual. Sample catalogue cards are shown, but with a strong plea to conserve time for more important service by using the prepared cards available from the sources named.

The treatment of subjective aspects of the work is necessarily limited, but it is difficult to think of a mechanical process likely to be needed in a small school library which is not treated. The arrangement of directions is logical throughout, and they are so inclusive that they give rise to the one ground for questioning the invariable usefulness of the book. Is it not possible that many a busy teacher will find even this abridged scheme of organization a mountain of detail?

To the nonprofessional person, there must, at first, seem to be little difference in the comparative importance of the contributions of the various processes described toward the objective of making the library a vital experience to the children. How is the untrained teacher-librarian to pick and choose the indispensable practices when lack of time manifestly forbids accomplishing them all? If somewhere in the book there could have been a summary of the minimum essentials, without which the simplest library project could not function at all, a first foothold would have been given for a right start in the most seriously underserved situations.

Nevertheless, the volume may well become a vade mecum for the trained school librarian in places remote from professional supervision, as well as for the untrained teacher-librarian groping for a practical guide.

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JOSEPHINE K. DILLON

BIOLOGY AND HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS.—Limitation in the amount of reference material has handicapped teachers in schools where practical difficulties prevented the formation of an adequate library. Some authors have attempted to meet this situation by including within the covers of a single volume a much greater amount of reading material than can be studied in a single course. This plan has been used by the author of one of the more recent textbooks in biology.¹ The result is a ponderous volume of more than a thousand pages, but the disadvantage of size and weight is largely, if not entirely, offset by its other values.

Many years ago the author of this publication prepared books on physiology and hygiene which were outstanding in accuracy and clarity of treatment and were, for a long time, standard textbooks for high-school classes. Although this new book is not so narrowly limited as the earlier textbooks, it gives evidence of the same careful workmanship.

In the Preface the author points out what he regards as important features of his work:

It is axiomatic that except in the tool subjects, where the acquisition of techniques and skills is the objective, much of the value of any school course depends on its organization and direction and on the mass effects it achieves. There has, therefore, in the making of this book been an attempt to select and arrange the material in such a way that the course as a whole will leave the student with certain important appreciations, concepts, and attitudes. . . . the effort has been made to develop an understanding of the method and scope of biology and an appreciation of the importance of extending its applications to human social affairs. Special attention has been given to building a conception of biology as a practical subject that is to be applied and used . . . the subject has been presented in terms of human living [p. iii].

The book is composed of twenty-two topics, designated as units: (1) "Why We Study Biology," (2) "The Diversity of Life," (3) "The Unity of Life," (4) "Changes in Living Things," (5) "Fundamental Life Problems," (6) "Methods and Problems of Reproduction," (7) "A Study of Simple Organisms," (8) "Two Representative Animal Groups," (9) "The Cold-blooded Vertebrates," (10) "The Warm-blooded Vertebrates," (11) "The Mammalian Body," (12) "The Plant Plan," (13) "Parasitology and Parasites," (14) "Nutrition," (15) "Heredit," (16) "Behavior," (17) "Animal Communities," (18) "Types of Water Animals," (19) "Life in the Sea," (20) "The Land Plants," (21) "Springtime Biology," and (22) "Our Biology Course."

¹ John W. Ritchie, *Biology and Human Affairs*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1941. Pp. xiv+1026. \$2.32.

Each of the units is introduced by an attractive and appropriate photograph, a sentence or two providing a peep into the unit, and a quotation from a well-known author. For example, the picture for Unit 10, "The Warm-blooded Vertebrates," is that of a very attractive, black-eared, sleepy pup sprawled on an old rug. The peep into the unit is: "Life advances to still higher levels. Warm blood allows continuous activity throughout the year." The quotation is from Sarah Andrews: "Warm blood provides the temperatures at which nerves and muscles work best. It leads to a higher order of development."

The introduction to the unit is followed by a "Question for Class Discussion," with five or six paragraphs discussing the unit in general, after which the four to eight problems of the unit are listed. The book contains 109 of these problems. At the end of each unit are a comprehension test (made up largely of *memoriter* rather than thought questions), a number of suggested activities and applications, and a list of reference books. There is an abundance of excellent pictures and drawings.

Careful examination of the book reveals a wide scope and clear perspective. In the simple way in which it presents great principles and shows their application to the lives of men, it is unique. The meaning of biology and its applications are developed to a degree impossible in a textbook of less generous size. The twenty-two units are encyclopedic rather than sequential in their treatment, thus making possible a flexible course which provides for the varying interests and abilities of different groups. The types of material included make it easy to adapt the book to regional and seasonal differences as well as to local school conditions and courses of study.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

- Administrative Adjustments Required by Socio-economic Change.* Proceedings of the Tenth Annual Conference of Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, Vol. IV. Compiled and edited by William C. Reavis. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941. Pp. x+236. \$2.00.
- BOND, GUY L., and BOND, EVA. *Developmental Reading in High School.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1941. Pp. xii+364. \$2.00.
- BROWN, CLARA M. *Evaluation and Investigation in Home Economics.* New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1941. Pp. xviii+462. \$3.50.
- DEARBORN, WALTER F., and ROTHNEY, JOHN W. M. *Predicting the Child's Development.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Sci-Art Publishers, 1941. Pp. 360. \$4.50.

- Education in a Democracy.* Compiled and edited by Newton Edwards. Charles R. Walgreen Foundation Lectures. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941. Pp. xii+160. \$1.25.
- Federal Aid for Education.* Compiled by Julia E. Johnsen. The Reference Shelf, Vol. XIV, No. 10. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1941. Pp. 286. \$1.25.
- HOLZINGER, KARL J., and HARMAN, HARRY H. *Factor Analysis: A Synthesis of Factorial Methods.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941. Pp. xii+418. \$5.00.
- HURD, ARCHER WILLIS. "Study Guide and Textbook in Technique of Teaching in Secondary Schools." Minneapolis, Minnesota: Burgess Publishing Co., 1941. Pp. ii+134 (mimeographed). \$1.85.
- JONES, DAISY MARVEL. *The Keystone Method of Teaching Reading: An Adaptation of Lantern Slides and the Stereopticon to the Teaching of Reading in Grade One.* Meadville, Pennsylvania: Keystone View Co., 1941. Pp. 136.
- LUECKE, EDITHA. *Factors Related to Children's Participation in Certain Types of Home Activity.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 839. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. viii+104. \$1.60.
- PRICE, LOUISE. *Creative Group Work on the Campus: A Developmental Study of Certain Aspects of Student Life.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 830. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. xvi+438. \$3.25.
- ROPE, FREDERICK T. *Opinion Conflict and School Support.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 838. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. viii+164. \$2.00.
- The Subject Fields in General Education.* A Report of the National Commission on Co-operative Curriculum Planning. Written in collaboration by John J. DeBoer (editor) and Others. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1941. Pp. x+240. \$1.50.
- WILSON, HARRY ROBERT. *Music in the High School.* New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1941. Pp. viii+440. \$4.00.

BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- ALDRICH, JULIAN, and BARTLETT, HALL. *Workbook in American History.* Prepared with special reference to *The American Way of Life* by Faulkner, Kepner, and Bartlett. New York: Harper & Bros., 1941. Pp. vi+278. \$0.68.
- BERNSTEIN, JACOB L., and ARRIN, DAVID J. *The Citizen in a Changing Community.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1941. Pp. xii+636. \$1.80.
- Cinco novelitas y un cuento.* Edited by Juan Cano and Edith Cameron. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1941. Pp. iv+270. \$1.48.
- Cuentos criollos.* Edited with Introduction, Notes, Exercises, and Vocabulary by Gertrude M. Walsh. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1941. Pp. xxvi+208. \$1.48.
- Discovering Geography: Book IV, *Industry.* Edited by L. Dudley Stamp and T. Herdman. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1940. Pp. 122. \$0.75.

- FINCHER, ERNEST B., and FRASER, RUSSELL E. *Workbook for Use with "Democracy at Work."* Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1941. Pp. 124. \$0.72.
- FISKE, WILBUR W. *Bo, the Cave Boy.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1941. Pp. viii+250. \$1.40.
- HAMBLÉN, STEWART B., and ZIMMERMAN, G. FRANK. *Wise Spending: An Introduction to Consumer Economics.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1941. Pp. xii+448.
- The Heath-Chicago French Series: Book X, *La ronde de la vie.* Edited by Otto F. Bond. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1941. Pp. viii+136. \$0.48.
- The Heath-Chicago German Series: Book II—Alternate, *Das tapfere Schneiderlein* and *Schneewittchen*, retold and edited after the German of Jakob and Wilhelm Grimm by Peter Hagboldt, pp. vi+58; Book III—Alternate, *Erzählungen und Anekdoten*, retold and edited by Peter Hagboldt, pp. viii+66. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1941. \$0.28 (each).
- HECHT, BEN, and MACARTHUR, CHARLES. *Fun To Be Free: Patriotic Pageant.* New York: Dramatists Play Service, Inc., 1941. Pp. 24. \$0.30.
- HOUSE, RALPH E., and MAPES, ERWIN K., with the assistance of RUTH HOUSE. *Shorter Spanish Grammar.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1941. Pp. x+278. \$1.40.
- Malaria: *The Story of an Individual Problem and a Community Problem*, pp. 46; *Malaria and Its Control in the Tennessee Valley* prepared by the Staff of the Health and Safety Department, pp. iv+48; "A Guide to a Community Educational Program for Malaria Prevention and Control" (Community Health and Safety Series, No. 1), pp. 24. Chattanooga, Tennessee: Health and Safety Department, Tennessee Valley Authority, 1941.
- Man and the Motor Car.* Edited and with an Introduction by Albert W. Whitney. New York: National Conservation Bureau, 1941 (revised). Pp. xii+288. \$1.00.
- MICHAELIS, L. S., M.D. *How the Body Works.* London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1940. Pp. 58+xvi. \$0.65.
- Universal Military Service.* Compiled by Robert E. Summers and Harrison B. Summers. The Reference Shelf, Vol. XV, No. 2. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1941. Pp. 280. \$1.25.
- VIGNERAS, MARCEL. *Chansons de France.* Transcrites avec accompagnement de piano, notes historiques et explicatives, et guide de prononciation. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1941. Pp. vi+52. \$0.25.

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- Aids to Democracy: Radio, Movies, Press.* Series 1—Modern Media of Education, Vol. I, No. 5. Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, 1941. Pp. 22. \$0.25.
- AMIDON, BEULAH. *Better Nursing for America.* Public Affairs Pamphlets, No. 60. New York: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1941. Pp. 32. \$0.10.
- CIOTTO, ANTONIO, and PALMER, CARROLL E. *The Hearing of School Children: A Statistical Study of Audiometric and Clinical Records.* Monographs of the

- Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. VI, No. 3 (Serial No. 29). Washington: Society for Research in Child Development, National Research Council, 1941. Pp. vi+78. \$1.00.
- CRILE, LUCINDA. "Preparation and Training of State Extension Subject-Matter Specialists." Extension Service Circular 371. Washington: United States Department of Agriculture, 1941. Pp. 34+10.
- EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. *The Civilian Conservation Corps, the National Youth Administration, and the Public Schools*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1941. Pp. 80. \$0.25.
- Gifts for Children's Bookshelves*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1941. Pp. 20.
- Individualization of Instruction in Reading*. Prepared by Division of Instructional Research. Educational Research Bulletin of the Bureau of Reference, Research and Statistics, No. 1. New York: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1941. Pp. vi+42.
- KINHART, HOWARD ANDREW. *The Effect of Supervision on High School English*. Johns Hopkins University Studies in Education, No. 30. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1941. Pp. x+102. \$1.25.
- KOSHUK, RUTH PEARSON. *Social Influences Affecting the Behavior of Young Children*. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. VI, No. 2 (Serial No. 28). Washington: Society for Research in Child Development, National Research Council, 1941. Pp. iv+72. \$1.00.
- Language Arts Area of the Rural School Curriculum Guide (Tentative Only)*. Prepared by the Committee on Language Arts, a Subcommittee of the State Rural Curriculum Committee, under the direction of Chas. C. Stadtman. Curriculum Bulletin No. 4, Circular No. 331. Springfield, Illinois: John A. Wieland, Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1941. Pp. 144.
- The Life of an Exceptional Child*. Proceedings of the Seventh Institute on the Exceptional Child under the Auspices of the Child Research Clinic of the Woods Schools. Langhorne, Pennsylvania: Child Research Clinic of the Woods Schools, 1940. Pp. 62.
- MEECE, LEONARD E., and SEAY, MAURICE F. *A Work-Conference for Rural Teachers: A Progress Report Describing a Work-Shop Technique as Applied to In-service Education of Teachers*. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XIII, No. 4. Lexington, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1941. Pp. 120. \$0.50.
- The Ohio Plan of Using the Evaluative Criteria of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards*. Prepared under the direction of D. H. Eikenberry, assisted by Carl C. Byers. Columbus, Ohio: Committee on Implementation, Ohio High School Principals' Association, 1941. Pp. 208+28. \$0.75 (paper), \$1.00 (cloth).
- Reading in the Intermediate Grades (Grades IV, V, and VI)*. Prepared by a Committee of the National Conference on Research in English, Gertrude Whipple

- (chairman). Ninth Research Bulletin of the National Conference on Research in English. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1941. Pp. 80.
- RYANS, DAVID G. *Measuring the Intellectual and Cultural Backgrounds of Teaching Candidates: An Analysis of the Results of the Second Annual Administration of the National Teacher Examinations*. Publications in Measurement and Guidance, Series N.T.E., Vol. I, No. 1. New York: Cooperative Test Service of the American Council on Education (15 Amsterdam Avenue), 1941. Pp. 28.
- Series on Individualization of Instruction, College of Education, University of Minnesota: No. 1, *The Children in Our Schools* by Josephine C. Foster, pp. viii+94; No. 2, *Grouping and Promotion in the Elementary School* by Walter W. Cook, pp. x+66; No. 3, *Illustrative Teaching Units for the Elementary Grades* by the University Elementary Demonstration School Faculty (the Tuttle School), pp. viii+100; No. 4, *Adapting Instruction in Arithmetic to Individual Differences* by Leo J. Brueckner, pp. viii+56. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1941. \$1.00 (each).
- Series on Labor Laws Affecting Women in the States: "New Jersey," pp. 27; "Texas," pp. 23. Washington: Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, 1941 (mimeographed).
- Situations in Which Citizenship Can Be Taught*. Edited by Max J. Herzberg. Publication of the New Jersey Secondary School Teachers' Association. Seventh of a Series of Publications Dealing with the Problems of Secondary Schools. Plainfield, New Jersey: New Jersey Secondary School Teachers' Association (Lester D. Beers, % Plainfield High School), 1941. Pp. 96. \$0.25.
- SMITH, RUTH LOHMANN. "Co-operative 4-H Houses on College Campuses." Miscellaneous Extension Publication No. 57. Washington: Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture, 1941. Pp. 24 (mimeographed).
- SWENSON, ESTHER J. *Retroactive Inhibition: A Review of the Literature*. University of Minnesota Studies in Education, College of Education, No. 1. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1941. Pp. iv+60. \$1.00.
- Work Experience in Education*. A Report Prepared at the Harvard Workshop in Education; Summer, 1941. Edited by Warren C. Seyfert and Paul A. Rehmus. Harvard Workshop Series, No. 2. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, 1941. Pp. x+66. \$0.50.
- Youth Education in Practical Living*. Compiled and edited by W. W. D. Sones. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: Curriculum Laboratory, University of Pittsburgh, 1941. Pp. x+132.
- UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION PUBLICATIONS:
- Bulletin No. 2, 1940—*Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1936-38*; Chap. i, *Statistical Summary of Education, 1937-38* prepared by Emery M. Foster, pp. 40, \$0.10; Chap. iv, *Statistics of Higher Education, 1937-38* by Henry G. Badger, Frederick J. Kelly, and John H. McNeely, pp. viii+378, \$0.45.

- Bulletin No. 3, 1941—*Weekday Classes in Religious Education Conducted on Released School Time for Public-School Pupils* by Mary Dabney Davis. Pp. vi+66. \$0.10.
- Circular No. 205—"Statistics of State School Systems, 1939-40 (Preliminary Report)" by David T. Blose. Pp. 12 (mimeographed).
- Education and National Defense Series, Pamphlet No. 13, 1941—*Hemisphere Solidarity: A Teacher's Guide on Inter-American Relations with Special Reference to Latin America (For Senior High Schools)*. Pp. vi+24. \$0.15.
- School and College Civilian Morale Service: How To Participate*. Pp. 28.
- Vocational Division Bulletin No. 213, Home Economics Education Series No. 24, 1941—*Home Economics in Public High Schools, 1938-39*. Pp. viii+114. \$0.20.

MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS

- Employee Training in the Public Service*. A Report Submitted to the Civil Service Assembly by the Committee on Employee Training in the Public Service, Milton Hall (chairman). Chicago: Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada (1313 East Sixtieth Street), 1941. Pp. xvi+172.
- KELLY, BRIAN. *An Advanced English Course for Foreign Students*. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1940. Pp. xvi+430. \$1.50.
- STUDENTS OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK. *Moments of Enchantment*. New York: Junior High School Principals Association, 1941. Pp. 72.

